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ABSTRACT

Six 1980 issues of the TESOL Newsletter are presented. Topics include the following: preparing a written paper for oral presentation (Fraida Dubin); current trends in teaching English as a second language (TESL) (Ruth Crymes); ESL syllabuses (Carlos Yorio); teaching Black English (Lorraine Goldman); the state of certification and employment within TESL (Marilyn Appelson, Jack Longmate, Gina Cantoni Harvey, and Ray Past); locating bibliographies in special areas of teaching ESL (Virginia F. Allen); locating materials in teaching ESL (Bernard Susser); notional functional methods (John Boyd & Mary Ann Boyd); suggestopedia (Donna Hurst Shkilevich); total physical response (Carol Weiner); questioning in counseling-learning (Daniel D. Tranel); the passive voice (Patrick Kameen); the definite article and discourse (Garry Molhot); problems of reading and writing (Margaret Paroutaud, Mary Ruetten Hank, William Powell, Darlene Larson & Raymond Griffith, Inez Marquez, and Darlene Larson & Thelma Borodkin). Articles are also included on speaking (Darlene Larson et al., Darlene Larson & Mona Schreiber, and Darlene Larson & Donald Monalto); transitioning students (Dennis Terdy); principles of language teaching (Richard Showstack); peer tutoring (Alice Pack & Deborah Dillion); testing (Charlotte E. Leventhal, Robert Ochsner, and Phillip Roth); language and culture (Andreas Martin, Darlene Larson & James B. Brown, Darlene Larson & William Gay, and Sarah Henry); teaching in China (Virginia F. Allen and Charles T. Scott); and refugee concerns (Donna Dunch). (SW)

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TESOL NEWSLETTER
Volumbe XIV Numbers 1-6 (February, April, June, August, October and December) 1980
Edited by John F. Haskell

Abstract:

I. General Information (the State of the Art, Current Trends, Bibliography, etc.). In keeping with a tradition of dealing with aids to presenting papers and workshops (see R. Yorkey, 2/79 and Kimball and Palmer, 6/79). Dubin (2/80) discusses preparing a written paper for oral presentation.

Current trends in teaching are brought clearly into focus in Ruth Crymes' (8/80) last paper presented before her death. Other recent developments in teaching ESL are presented by Yorio (on syllabuses, 10/80) and Goldman (on teaching Black English, 8/80).

The state of certification and employment within TESL are discussed by Appelson (4/80), Longmate (6/80), Harvey (6/80 and 8/80) and Past (10/80) who talks of teacher training programs.

Bibliographies in special areas of teaching ESL are suggested by Allen (2/80) and where to find materials, by Susser (6/80).

II. Classroom Practices and Procedures.

In addition to the Crymes and Yorio articles mentioned above, the topic of general methods are discussed by the Boyds (Notional-Functional, 2/80), Skilevitch (Suggestopedia, 4/80), Weiner (Total Physical Response, 4/80) and Tranel (Counseling-Learning, 8/80).

Grammar practices are discussed by Kameen 6/80 and Molhat (12/80).

Problems of reading and writing are covered in articles by Parataud (4/80), Hank (4/80), Powell (6/80), Larson ang Griffith (12/80), Marquez (12/80) and Larson and Borodkin (10/80).

Speaking is dealt with in Larson, et. al (6/80), Larson and Schreiber (8/80), and Larson and Montaldo (12/80). Special topics are covered by Terdy (transitioning students, 8/80), Showstack (principles of language teaching, 6/80), and Pack and Dillon (peer tutoring, 6/80).

III. Testing. Leventhal (2/80) discusses noise as a factor in testing, Ochsner (10/80) discusses teacher training comprehensive exams, and Roth (10/80 discusses the problems of testing students for placement in bilingual programs.

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IV. Language and Culture. Martin (12/80) and Larson and Brown (4/80) discuss the use of print medium (Shogun) and film (The Graduate) in teaching and learning about language and culture. Larson and Gay (2/80) discuss an intercultural workshop for teaching cultural awareness and Henry (10/80) discusses mental health problems in the ethnic community.

Teaching in China is discussed by Allen (6/80) and Scott (12/80) and Refugee concerns are dealt with by Bunch (12/80).

2/80

Dubin, Fraida. The Conference Paper as an Oral Script: Writing to be Heard.

Allen, Virginia F. Non-Fiction in the 'young adult' department of the Public Library.

Boyd, John and Mary Ann Boyd. Adding a Notional Functional Dimension to Listening.

Leventhal, Charlotte E. Measuring Intelligibility of Non-native speakers with White Noise.

Larson, Darlene and William Gay. It Works: A One-Day Intercultural Communication Workshop in an ESL Program.

4/80

Appelson, Marilyn. Certification in TESL.

Shkilevich, Donna Hurst. Suggestopedia: A Theory and a Model.

Paroutaud, Margaret. Learning English Through the Medium of Poetry.

Hank, Mary Ruetten. Using Short Stories in the Advanced ESL Composition Class.

Larson, Darlene and James B. Brown. It Works: Teaching Cultural Awareness with "The Graduate."

Weiner, Carol. A Look at Total Physical Response.

6/80

Longmate, Jack. "Turn Over" in the ESL Profession.

Allen, Virginia F. The Challenge of Teaching in China.

Showstack, Richard. Ten Things I have Learned About Learning a Foreign Language.

Harvey, Gina Cantoni. The Preparation of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages.

Pack, Alice and Deborah Dillon. Peer Tutoring Activities for the ESL Classroom.

Powell, William. ESL and Composition: A Report.

Susser, Bernard. Obtaining Teaching Materials.

Larson, Darlene, Ann Larson, Susan Corbacioglu, and Ronald Rogers. For Some Sparkling Conversation...

Kameem, Patrick. The Passive Voice: It must be spoken for.

8/80

Crymes, Ruth. Current Trends in ESL Instruction

Larson, Darlene and Mona Schreiber. It Works: The Mini-Play: A New Direction in Oral Proficiency Testing.

Harvey, Gina Cantoni. Establishing ESL Certification in Your State: A Step-by-Step Method.

Appelson, Marilyn. An ESL Instructional Supplement: The Volunteer.

Tranel, Daniel D. Questioning in Counseling-Learning.

Goldman, Lorraine. Yesterday's Taboo is Today's Chic

Terdy, Dennis. Transitioning from ESL in the Secondary Level.

10/80

Ochsner, Robert. A Review of ESL Comprehensive Exams in M.A. Programs.

Past, Ray. An EXTFP: Ten Years After.

Henry, Sarah. Treating Mental Illness in the Ethnic Community.

Roth, Phillip. Processing of Individuals and Assessment of Students for Possible Inclusion in a Comprhensive Lau Educational Program.

Larson, Darlene and Thelma Borodkin. It Works: Changing Speaking to Writing in the Language Laboratory.

Yorio, Carlos. MOdels of Second Language Acquisition.

12/80

Dunch, Donna. Teaching ESL to Indochinese Refugees: A Report

Scott, Charles T. Some First Impressions of EFL Teaching in China.

Molhot, Garry. Contributions of the Definite Article to the Coherence of Discourse.

Larson, Darlene and Donald Montalto. It Works: Overcoming the Fear of a Foreign Language Phone Conversation.

Larson, Darlene and Raymond Griffith. It Works: Rooms

Marquez, Inez. The Meaning of "Blurp" : Teaching Dictionary Use.

Martin, Andreas. Learning JSL from "Shogun"

THE CONFERENCE PAPER AS AN ORAL SCRIPT: WRITING-TO-BE-HEARD

by Fraida Dubin
University of Southern California

Two years ago *TESOL Newsletter* (February 1978) published an article by Richard Yorkey on 'How to Prepare and Present a Professional Paper.' As TESOL participants get ready for the 1980 Convention in San Francisco, that article is still an invaluable reference. In one section, the part in which the author comments on the stylistic characteristics of a paper that is written-to-be-heard—Yorkey, I believe, has moved over the heart of the matter too lightly. Particularly since it is the matter that is most pertinent to specialists in language.

In the article Yorkey stated: "A paper that is to be delivered orally should be written in a somewhat different style from a paper that is to be read silently. This is a matter of individual preference and judgment. Generally speaking, however, the style may be less formal, with shorter sentences and with parenthetical comments. Acknowledgements that usually appear in footnotes should be worked into the text itself."

Then, in the final part on revision, he said: "Revise it to be read silently."

There is nothing in these statements with which one would want to take issue. But do these brief suggestions about the "somewhat different" styles of oral vs. written language tell the whole story? I believe they overlook many interesting characteristics of writing intended for a listening audience. Few people, in fact, consider the paper to be delivered orally as a distinct type of writing, indoctrinated as we are with the conventions of expository prose. My purpose is to delve further into a type of writing I call the oral script, to point out how it is distinct from writing intended to be read.

The separate domains of spoken vs. written language have been well described. While written form requires polish and refinement, spoken language is characterized by spontaneity. In writing one seeks clarity, but more often in spoken discourse the aim is rapport. Written language presupposes distance between an author and audience, while spoken language only flourishes when there is reciprocity. On the other hand, in preparing a paper for oral presentation the writer strives for the tone of spoken language, knowing all the time that it will not be a successful performance if the script sounds too natural.

For the talk prepared for a listening audience is neither purely spoken nor written language. Rather, it lies somewhere on a continuum between these two poles, containing features of each along with special characteristics of its own. In many respects, it is a rare species in a culture such as our own in which the printed word holds authority. Apart from the conference paper and its sub-types, only a specialized few come to mind: the sermon, the political address, the comic monologue. Not many of us have had to learn the craft of producing any of these forms.

Suggestions on how to write a conference paper for oral presentation may be beside the point for some. One colleague pointed out to me that for conferences he prepares "a paper for publication" and then simply makes a few notes on a 3 × 5 card from which to talk. This procedure may suffice for those seasoned to standing at a podium and speaking without a script, or for professional talk-givers who, more likely than not, replay the same material before different audiences. But many of us at TESOL Conventions have not had this kind of experience. Or we prefer the security a fully worked out script in-hand provides before approaching the microphone and a room full of strange faces.

In developing Yorkey's suggestions, I have looked at the following materials: 1) Comments on giving oral talks in representative English handbooks—prescriptive beliefs. 2) Assorted published work for radio, together with examples of conference papers in which both an oral and a written version had been prepared by the authors—descriptive data. 3) Characteristics I have noted while listening to effective talks at conference sessions—participant observations. These various sources offer provocative ideas concerning the phonological, lexical, syntactic and organizational features of writing-to-be-heard.

Prescriptive beliefs

The following suggestions are from two authorities, Barzun and Wood:

1. Phonological characteristics: "Watch the sound of your prose. You will have to *speak* these sentences, so you must assemble words that your tongue can wrap itself around. Avoid the noun plague in your compound sentences, or you will be giving out *-tion, -tions, -sion, -sions* like a steam engine; and remember that *s, ce, sh* coming in a row are disagreeable as well as a possible danger to your delivery ('she sells seashells by the seashore'). (Barzun, pg. 74).

2. Lexical characteristics: "More personal pronouns (*I, you, us, we*) are used in an oral report than in a written report because the listening audience is there, immediately present." (Wood, pg. 176).

"Use as few technical terms as possible, not because they may not be understood but because they may not be heard aright; they are not common words and many are alike in sound." (Barzun, pg. 74).

3. Syntactic characteristics: "No listener, however sharp or intent, can perform the feat of following by ear and retaining by memory the turns and twists and factual contents of a long complex sentence . . . The paper that is to be read must be written in simple and compound sentences and—to prevent monotony—in complex sentences of the shortest kind. The heavy work of exposition must be done by the main clause. Short and long, simple and short-complex must be mixed, not only for variety but for additional emphasis, a short simple sentence serving to clinch a point or, again, to introduce a new topic." (Barzun, pg. 76).

4. Organizational characteristics: "Oral reports have fewer main ideas than written reports . . . they contain more supportive material . . . they have more transitional material . . . to show when a speaker or writer is leaving one idea and introducing the next." (Wood, pgs. 175-176).

". . . there is more occasion than in writing to indicate changes of subject in so many words: 'Now I want to turn to' . . . (or 'take up' or 'remind you'). Everything that helps the audience know where they are or what they should be thinking of will be gratefully received. You must therefore observe more than you usually do the principle of matching parts, the exact tethering of pronouns and anglers, and the close linking of modifiers." (Barzun, pg. 74).

Descriptive data

1. Radio writing: In an earlier era, writing for the listening ear was produced as a distinct form by radio writers.

Although it no longer flourishes, there are a few extant examples such as the Columbia Broadcasting System series, 'The Odyssey File,' literally radio editorials. From this corpus, which included the non-dramatic work of Norman Corwin and the CBS editorials, these characteristics have implications for oral presentations:

—*Word repetition*: While expository writing frowns on repeating the same word in a paragraph, Corwin frequently does just the opposite:

"How *would* you like to get up before an audience of five million people and introduce yourself? *Would* you rap on the edge of a glass with a spoon to get attention, like this? (Rapping on glass) Do you think that *would* quiet such an audience? *Would* you clear your throat like this? (clears throat). Or *would* you try to ride over their noise by shouting through a public address system the traditional salutation . . . And assuming you got the five million to quiet down, how *would* you then proceed to intro-

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WRITING-TO-BE-HEARD

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duce yourself?" ('Anatomy of Sound,' in Corwin, 1944. p. 233).

—*Aliteration*: Frequently, words close to each other begin or end with the same sound, despite Barzun's warning about sibilants: ". . . as though you were a night *base*ball game, only *big*ger" (ibid.)

"Good *z*enith to you, in all *z*ones, in all island*s*, in all continent*s*." ('Program To Be Opened in a Hundred Years,' in Corwin, 1944. p. 395.)

"They *w*on it by the *w*eight and the pers*ua*sion of steel and flame and by the *b*lood of their *b*odies, and by a *v*iolence ne*v*er seen be*fore* that time; nor, *th*anks to *th*em, since *th*at time." (ibid.)

—*Title expansions*: In the radio editorials, titles consist of a catchy phrase (for example, 'We're All Plugged Into the Same Socket,' 'Dying Standards,' 'Just Plain Kids.') Then the introductory sentences identify and explain the phrase. The idea contained in the title is sustained over two minutes of air-time with only supporting illustrations but no new ideas introduced.

—*Short sentences*: One reads/listens to numerous air editorials without ever seeing/hearing an introductory clause. Sentences are simple or compound, frequently quite brief.

—*Sentence connectors*: The *and's* and *but's* are repeated over and over with very few examples of other connecting material.

—*Paragraph length*: The numerous examples of the two, three, or even one sentence paragraph probably indicate that paragraph development has little relevance for the oral script.

2. Oral/written versions: Writers are apt to labor painstakingly over one or the other version, oblivious to the special requirements of each. However, I was able to look at two versions in which the authors had consciously aimed at first a listening and then a reading audience:

—*Intensifiers*: For publication purposes, the adverbials that add extra emphasis are frequently crossed out, but the oral version is filled with words such as: *really, quite, particularly, too, very, nearly, pretty, awfully, terribly, simply, solely*, etc.

—*Pronominal reference*: Oral versions have repetition of titles, proper names, and place names rather than pronouns referring to previously mentioned items.

—*Traffic signals*: Oral versions tend to have many more expressions that signal what has just been stated and what will follow: ('I've just listed,' 'Now, I'm going to explain,' 'What comes next is . . .')

—*Appeal to senses*: At times, vivid vocabulary in the oral version becomes subdued in the version for print: For example, 'cuts, clips, and pastes' changed to 'manages the intricacies of classroom management.'

Participant observaions

The familiar formula offered for a successful oral talk is, "begin with a funny story." But a humorous beginning in which the presenter catches the audience's attention needs to be followed with a listenable script. From my own observations, I suggest that speakers consider these points:

1. Latecomers and early leavers: Since latecomers and early leavers are more the rule than the exception, a good oral script should take the occurrence into account. The conventional outline type of organization does not fit an audience made up of many who will not be present for the entire presentation. Building up to an ending in which the main points are only summarized in the closing minutes may be lost on one-third of the audience, just as announcing only at the beginning what will be said during the talk loses another third. I prefer a modified cyclical plan in which the same point is made three or four times in the script but in each cycle it appears in slightly different language and from an altered point of view. So, instead of an outline of main points (plus supporting details) such as A, B, C, D, one uses a plan of A^1, A^2, A^3, A^4. A possible cyclical plan is the type where a main point is illustrated by three or four long, narrative-style examples.

2. The handout: An effective accompaniment for an oral script gives a quick, visual cue to the presenter's plan. Some listen better when they write, so make the handout sparse, allowing space for people to take notes if they wish. In addition, the handout can provide bibliographical references that will be useful after the conference; tell the audience that the piece of paper is a "take-home." Providing too much detail often draws people's attention from the speaker. If the handout must contain technical information, statistics, graphs, etc. try distributing it at the end of the session.

3. The wind-up: If you want questions and comments, guide the audience's participation by seeking their responses to your questions. This technique tends to ward off attention seekers who may try to dominate the session with long-winded comments or even hostile questions.

Finally, try monitoring the sessions you attend at TESOL/San Francisco for good oral script writing. It is likely that the effective presentations will contain most of the features cited in this article.

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NON-FICTION IN THE "YOUNG ADULT" DEPARTMENT OF THE PUBLIC LIBRARY

A virtually untapped resource for
ESL and basic ESP/EST
(high school & adult)

Samples selected and annotated

by Virginia F. Allen

While *fiction* found in the Juvenile sections of libraries is generally not suitable, a great deal of *non*-fiction can be very helpful in ESL, even when the students are adults.

The large, well-chosen pictures help teach the vocabulary of subject-matter fields often neglected in ESL classes. The pictures also stimulate discussion and form the basis for oral and written composition.

The text usually consists of brief passages which develop concepts from one or more of the content fields, beginning with basics and progressing to a level beyond the expertise of most ESL teachers. Such "trade" books often serve better than school textbooks to give ESL students orientation to Science, Social Studies and other subjects taught in secondary schools. Adults learning English for Special Purposes (ESP) or English for Science and Technology (EST) can learn from such books the English terms related to key concepts in their respective fields.

The books described here merely begin to suggest the wealth of material accessible, free, to most ESL teachers. Many who teach one or two students in quasi-tutoring situations just put the book into the students' hands and sit with them while they go through it, supplying help when needed. In larger classes, the material is used by individuals or small groups capable of working independently while their classmates are learning something they already know.

Adler, Irving and Ruth Adler. *Numerals: new dresses for old numbers.* N.Y.: John Day, 1964. Like all Young Adult books, this text offers lavish illustrations plus gradual development of concepts from simple to complex. Starts: "Every number has its own name. In the English language, the number of fingers on a hand has the name *five*." Ends with Computers and Base Two Numerals: "The electric current in each part of a computer may be either *on* or *off*. If we let *off* stand for 0 and let *on* stand for 1, then a lamp is like a place in a base two numeral."

Ames, Lee J. *Draw 50 dinosaurs and other animals.* Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday, 1977. Each unit shows simple steps to follow in getting from a simple circle to a finished picture of some prehistoric beast. Very little text, but each caption (in addition to the beast's technical name) contains useful vocabulary like *insect*, *giant*, *ancient*, etc. Ideal seat work for the discouraged high school student who likes to draw and needs to learn elementary science vocabulary.

Forrai, Maria S. and Margaret Sanford Pursell. *A look at adoption.* Minneapolis: Lerner, 1978. Situational photos offer interesting possibilities for class discussion of social studies concepts. Brief passages of text on facing pages, e.g.: "Sometimes a husband and wife raise a child who was born to another set of parents. They make the child a part of their family by *adopting* it as their own." The author, while single, adopted a child and later married and had a "natural" child. Deals with the who, whom, why and how of adoption—new concepts for many ESL students.

Glubok, Shirley. *Knights in Armor.* N.Y.: Harper & Row, 1969. Full-page 8½ × 11 pictures give flavor of medieval chivalry, as English-speaking people grow up idealizing it (but many ESL students have not). All but advanced ESL students would need Teacher's help in reading text, but it would supply useful background for history classes. Sample sentence: "Chivalry required that knights be brave, loyal, and just, speak only the truth, be fair to their enemies, help people in distress, protect women, and show mercy to the weak and defenceless."

Kelly, James and W. R. Park. *The tunnel builders.* Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1976. Each page contains large pictures (most are colored) and simple text, e.g., "Some tunnels go through mountains. Some tunnels go through buildings. Some go under streets. Tunnels even go under rivers." Though this is simple, the tone is not condescending, and the text is informative, even to teachers. E.g.: "Sometimes *roof bolts* are used to hold up the roof of tunnels built through rock. The roof bolt is a long steel rod. . . ." [Note that the basic vocabulary of construction, industry and engineering can be learned from such a book.]

Macaulay, David. *Underground.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1976. Tells and *shows* (through excellent pictures and diagrams) what is beneath the buildings and streets of a modern city, and how this vast network serves the people living there. Text too detailed and too technical for most ESL students (and even for their teachers) but an excellent vocabulary builder for EST professionals and engineering students, who could work on it in small groups. *All* ESL classes could use the fine pictures for discussion.

May, Julian. *They lived in the ice age.* N.Y.: Holiday House, 1967. Introduces anthropology, history, geography, social studies through good illustrations and a narrative describing life on this continent a million years ago, and how life has changed. Some pictures show children exploring fossil areas, etc.; otherwise fine for adults as well as young students. Sample: Some scientists think the
end of the Fourth Ice Age
was a time of great storms,
with volcanoes erupting."

[Note strategic use
of spacing to facili-
tate reading.]

Razzell, Arthur G. and K. G. O. Watts. *Circle and Curves.* Garden City, NY: Doubleday, 1968. Richly illustrated text introduces science and math concepts & vocabulary (*helix*, *ellipse*, *circumference*, etc.) along with problems and experiments. E.g., outlines of an apple, an egg, and a new moon are shown, beside the question: "Is this a circle?" Then a large ○ , with the same question. Next comes the definition.

Rey, H. A. *Find the constellations.* Boston: Houghton, Mifflin, 1976. Though Rey is best known as author of the Curious George books for young children, there is nothing childish about this text. It tells more than most teachers know about the stars, simply presented in a sort of game-show format, e.g., "Here are the stars the way you see them in the sky. Just for sport, can you find the Big Dipper on this Sky-View without looking at the opposite page?" Has possibilities for peer-taught group work, where one student acts as leader. Sketches and cartoon-type text in margins also teach useful vocabulary; e.g. "What's *lunar?*" "Comes from *luna*, Latin for *moon*." Excellent background for science classes in the mainstream.

Tressett, Alvin. *The beaver pond.* N.Y.: Lothrop, Leo & Shepard, 1970. Beautifully illustrated narrative tells how beavers made a pond, and how the pond changed "slowly, slowly, year by year." Useful vocabulary of nature, basic ecology. For junior and

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NON-FICTION IN THE LIBRARY

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senior h.s. or for group work in adult classes.

Taborin, Glorina. *Norman Rockwell's counting book*. N.Y.: Crown (Harmony) 1977. Not strictly "Young Adult" because Taborin uses Rockwell Sat. Eve. Post pictures for teaching young chidren the numbers. But never mind that. Ignore the page facing each 8½ × 11 picture. Use the pictures themselves to teach vocabulary of human relations and of English-speaking culture—also to elicit oral English and to motivate group-composition writing. Years ago ESL teachers avidly collected Sat. Eve. Post covers by Rockwell, now long out of circulation. This book makes that gold-mine accessible again.

Another real find is *The How and Why Library of Child Craft* (Chicago: Field Enterprises Educational Corporation, 1976). Volume 8, *How We Get Things,* offers a whole year's work in basic ESP/EST; other ESL teachers could sample its contents, which include The Things We Wear, Getting from Here to There, What's Economics—also how erasers are made, what's under the manhole cover, and much more. Brief passages of simple text, with many illustrations (mostly photos of contemporary life). Sample: "In the middle of some streets you will see a round, flat piece of iron. It is a manhole cover."

Readers who are discovering useful Young Adult Non-Fiction might share their findings, following the format illustrated here. I think it would be great if TESOL could collect a hundred or more such entries, classify them according to the content fields represented, and publish the lot as a way to help ESL students prepare for coping with the mainstream.

Proposed additions to the list might be brought to the San Francisco conference, or mailed to me.

ADDING A NOTIONAL/FUNCTIONAL DIMENSION TO LISTENING

John R. Boyd/Mary Ann Boyd
Illinois State University

Like many of our colleagues in ESL, our classrooms today reflect the trends in humanistic education explored and developed in the 1970's. From the writings of Stevick, Gattegno, and Curran among others, we have been led to restructure our classes around student learning rather than around teacher teaching. And upon placing the emphasis on the student, the question of student needs and the uses he will put to the language he acquires becomes paramount. In this learning environment, notional/functional ideas—ideas of language learning as the acquiring of communicative competency in the language—woud seem to be particularly relevant.

How can a teacher make a student centered class a notional/functional one as well? We have been working toward answers to this question and find that our search is causing us to modify our approach in the process. As we moved toward a student centered approach to language learning during the past few years, we freely acknowledged our debt to the Silent Way, in particular to the twin goals of teacher silence/student talk and of teacher concentration on the student while the student concentrates on the language. Thus our classes allowed for ample student-student interaction and student choice in and correction of utterances while we as teachers retained control of the content of the talk and to a large extent to the structures employed through pictures, realia, etc. Within this environment our students were able to develop the necessary linguistic criteria to judge the grammatical correctness of both their own and others' speech.

For a time we were well pleased with the results we were seeing in the classroom. In comparison with earlier methods we had used, stemming from more orthodox teacher centered philosophy, the students responded better, seemed more involved and more interested and grew to depend on themselves and each other instead of turning automatically to us for confirmation. However, as successful and satisfying as this approach was, it seemed that our students still did not possess the necessary competence to communicate effectively in real life situations. Thus we were philosophically "ripe" for what notional/functional theory was saying.

In particular, we turned our attention to the skill of listening: how it is taught and for what purposes it is learned. Listening is often listed first among the four language skills and its importance in relation to the development of speaking skills is never doubted. However, in looking at how the skill of listening is developed in many ESL classes including our own, it became readily apparent to us that most if not all of the time devoted to listening is spent in improving the ability to comprehend factual content. As students develop listening skills they become better receivers of the language—a necessary and important competence to acquire. But the language they are "receiving" is descriptive factual information. Although this is important, from the standpoint of notional/functional theory, the ability to understand the function of the message being "received" is equally important. And it is competency in understanding the communicative function that must be developed to enable the student to use the language appropriately.

Within our classes we had been placing too much emphasis on descriptive speech; i.e., the students were always talking *about* something. The students listening to this descriptive speech came to develop the criteria to discern correct grammatical structures but were left without the opportunity to develop a corresponding criteria for the analysis of the function or use of language in a given setting. As long as our students continued to listen to each other or to a teacher setting artificial patterns, not enough real language with all its varied functions and for all its various purposes was being heard to develop an awareness of the language appropriate to a given conversation.

In attempting to translate this to classroom technique, we are beginning to change or at least augment conventional listening activities to bring in a functional thrust as well. Since most present texts devoted to listening comprehension focus almost exclusively on comprehending factual content, different kinds of activities are needed to focus on the function. Among these would be several types of exercises with information missing or with the potential for misunderstanding such as one-sided telephone conversations, jigsaw listening, role plays and strip stories.

What all of the above activities have in common is that they strive to bring real language into the classroom. In a discussion of real language, a distinction can be drawn between authentic language samples and realistic language—authentic language being actual recorded speech while realistic language is the attempt to replicate authentic language for study in class; i.e., role plays, skits, dialogs. Each has its advantages and also its problems for use in the classroom. Yet only language that is within real contexts (or facsimiles thereof) and spoken for real purposes can be said to contain a functional focus. And only after the student has heard a significant amount of real language will he begin to develop criteria for choosing appropriate language in response.

Moreover, within these activities student listening and student speaking are intertwined just as they are in communication situations outside of the classroom. In addition, these activities have another feature to argue for their inclusion in an ESL class. While the students are listening for clues and responding they are also engaged in unraveling a puzzle or in clearing up ambiguity. Thus their focus is on a task rather than on listening and responding per se. And that is exactly the focus that students will need to bring to the communication demands of the world outside of the class. This new dimension on the value of listening is what we are taking from notional/functional theory and putting to use within the classroom.

MEASURING INTELLIGIBILITY OF NON-NATIVE SPEAKERS WITH WHITE NOISE

by Charlotte Ellson Leventhal
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The white noise, as designed by Bernard Spolsky, et al., (1968) is considered a valid instrument to measure the overall English proficiency of non-native speakers. Spolsky tests the student's ability to receive messages which have been distorted by adding background static to English sentences dictated by a native speaker (Gradman and Spolsky, 1975). A similar but reversed procedure was used as part of a dissertation on non-native English pronunciation. This researcher, unlike Spolsky, attempted to measure oral intelligibility with the white noise rather than test aural comprehension.

An attempt was made to establish an intelligibility score for each subject with two measures. Subjects read aloud a series of unrelated English sentences from the Templin-Darley Test of Articulation. They also answered questions in an interview about their language learning history. The first measure was the student's rating on the six point Foreign Service Pronunciation Rating Scale. The criterion for the second measure was to be the point at which the subject's pronunciation was judged to be intelligible as the white noise level was gradually decreased. Two raters were making independent judgments.

During the pilot study of the project, however, it was determined that rater understanding of the spoken sentences

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MEASURING INTELLIGIBILITY

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through the noise was not so much a factor of pronunciation as of individual voice quality. Voices which were less intelligible regardless of pronunciation were raspy, husky, hoarse, throaty, breathy, muffled, muted, falsetto, soft, and/or low. Clear sharp voices were intelligible much sooner as the noise was reduced. The correctness of English pronunciation was a minor factor. The raters were obliged, therefore to eliminate the white noise test as a method of measuring intelligibility.

As Spolsky demonstrated, having foreign students *listen* through white noise to a single, well-chosen speaker in order to measure overall language proficiency is a valid testing procedure. Having foreign students *speak* through noise to a rater, however, seems not to be a valid testing procedure unless voice quality is the aspect of oral language being tested.

The results of this study suggest that teachers consider voice quality when making evaluations of student pronunciation in classrooms where the acoustics can produce interference similar to white noise.

IT WORKS

Edited by Darlene Larson
New York University

A One-day Intercultural Communication Workshop in an ESL Program

by Bill Gay

Division of International Programs
University of Southern California
and President, NAFSA

At the American Language Institute at the University of Southern California, as in most ESL programs, we try to provide special activities outside the classroom for our students. These activities take many forms, but a recent experiment turned out to be very special. On a beautiful Saturday in November a class in cultural geography from Cerritos Community College visited our campus for a one-day Intercultural Communication Workshop (ICW). There were approximately seventy students—thirty-five Americans from Cerritos College and thirty-five foreign students from USC, give or take a few. Each group had its own cohesiveness, since all the Americans were from a specific class and all the foreign students were from one ESL program. It was not difficult, therefore, to make some preparation for the ICW. The instructor from Cerritos College talked to her students about the different cultures that would be represented, and we talked to our ALI students about community colleges and community college students. All of this preliminary discussion was general; none of the students really knew specifically what to expect in an ICW.

In the preliminary meetings both groups of students were asked what their expectations were. By far the overwhelming idea was that we would get together and talk about our different cultures, traditions, and life styles. Most of the students figured that the day would be spent in classroom-type sessions. Nevertheless, they were interested; some were excited. Since many of the foreign students do not have close American friends, they felt that this would be an opportunity to begin some friendships and at least get acquainted. Since Cerritos College has very few foreign students, the Americans were excited about meeting our students and about visiting the USC campus. All in all, then, it was an exciting prospect. The following detailed outline of one workshop might be a source of ideas for activities that could be repeated in other ESL programs.

8:30-9:30 Donuts and coffee and informal introductions. The students from Cerritos College arrived together in a bus at USC's Student Activities Center. Most of the USC students had already appeared and were waiting when the bus arrived. After some hesitation at first, the students began talking to each other, and before long some lively getting acquainted was taking place. Six teachers from ALI who had volunteered to assist with the day's events were a big help getting the initial conversation going and helping with the activities during the rest of the day.

Just before 9:30 I announced that it was time to get started and asked that everyone take a seat on the floor. I began by telling everyone that we were there for an Intercultural Communication Workshop and asked them to comment on the meaning of those three words. In the few minutes which followed there were comments on attitudes toward other cultures, on the meaning of communication, and on expectations for the rest of the day. I had decided not to spend much time talking that day because I wanted it to be a day of activity for the participants, so I merely mentioned in passing that we were not there to study other cultures but to meet people and make friends. (I won't go into the purposes for intercultural communication workshops here. Those of you who are interested might read Samovar and Porter, as well as other publications now available concerning intercultural communication theory and practice.) My statement that we were here to meet people and make friends was a gross understatement, of course, because I thought much more than that would result by the end of the day, as indeed it did. However, delineating all the goals of the day seemed unnecessary at the beginning and superfluous at the end.

9:30-11:00 In order to get the students to relax and mingle, we began by playing some theater games. They seem rather trite when described on paper, but they accomplished their purpose. First, everybody lined up alphabetically by the first letter of his or her first name. Since most of our ESL students were at the intensive level in ALI, this was an interesting experience. But it was all in good humor and turned out to be a real ice breaker.

Second, they were asked to line up by the length of their hair. Those of you who know me will understand when I say I was first in line. But a Japanese student was a close second.

The ALI instructors had met with me over dinner several nights before and decided on some of the day's tactics. One of the decisions was that we would divide into six groups for most of the day's activities so that the people in each group would get to know each other fairly well. We formed these groups by asking one American and one foreign student to pair up and stand together. Next, they got together with two other couples; in other words, three couples as a unit. Last, each group of six was to choose and stand with another group of six. Since we didn't have quite seventy-two students, a couple of the groups had fewer than twelve, but that didn't matter. This process of grouping took a few minutes and was good for getting people to move around and talk to each other.

Once the groups were formed, we began activities that kept these groups in tact for most of the rest of the day. I asked each group to spend five minutes deciding how to build a people machine. At the end of the five minutes, each group in turn built a people machine for the edification of the other groups. The actual building had to be done in complete silence. The most imaginative of all was the group which manufactured a windmill, but a close second was a human typewriter.

The participants were asked to form a circle within their respective groups and sit down on the carpet. Each person, one by one, was then asked to give his first name and tell a lie about his reason for coming to the ICW. For example, Hiroshi said, "My name is Hiroshi. I came here to get married." Then number two was to introduce Hiroshi, tell why he came, and then give his/her name and tell why s/he came. So, for example, Jane said, "This is Hiroshi; he came here to get married. My name is Jane; I came here to play tennis." Number three would then have to introduce Hiroshi and Jane and then him or herself. By the time number twelve had his turn, you can imagine the challenge. It's a good way to get better acquainted.

11:00-11:45 Up to this point the activities might be classified under the "intercultural" part of an Intercultural Communication Workshop. The next exercise would be classified under the "communication" part. All the foreign students in each group were asked to carry on a conversation in their native language, and the Americans and other foreign students were asked to try to guess what the conversation was about. It was all right to use gestures, but no English was permitted. The purpose of this activity, of course, was to point out how language can be a means of exclusion. The foreign students thought that the Americans were really learning a lesson until I asked the Americans to get together for a few minutes to think of a topic and then to talk about it in gibberish. The exercise was fun, and by

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the end of it, everyone realized a lot about communication.

Next the members of each group were asked to form pairs, sit on the floor facing each other with hands on the floor touching fingers, and look into each other's eyes in complete silence. I knew this would be awkward but I didn't know just how awkward. Most people could not hold out. There was much squirming and looking away. I think it became almost unbearable for some, so I didn't let it go on very long. I asked them to talk about themselves for several minutes, and then they re-formed into groups to tell the rest of the group what they had learned about their partners.

It was time to move around a bit, so two activities followed which allowed a lot of movement. I asked everyone to close his eyes and mill around silently, occasionally touching someone else's face at the same time he touched his own face. Touching was brand new to some.

We then spent twenty minutes square dancing. One of our teachers had brought a record player and square dance record. She gave directions and called the dances. This turned out to be a lot of fun with no object whatsoever.

By the end of the square dancing it was time for lunch. Everyone had been asked to prepare a lunch, preferably one which contained some typical food of the home country. We then went outside, sat around in groups, and shared our lunches. This was a time to get into some informal discussion about anything, and that's exactly what happened. In addition, a real estate company provided a hundred frisbees, twenty of which are still atop the Student Activities Center and eighty of which were taken home.

1:00-2:00 After lunch we returned to the meeting room. I talked a little bit about trust and friendship and about what had happened so far during the day. I then asked each group to talk about what friendship and trust meant to them as individuals. Apparently, enough ice had been broken during the morning and they had gotten to know each other well enough to feel at ease, because the discussions got underway immediately, and everyone seemed interested.

2:00-2:30 We again went outside the building, this time in pairs, for a trust walk. One partner was blindfolded and the other led the way. Once outside, the partner who could see guided the other around so that he touched things and other people. After ten or fifteen minutes I announced that they should change roles so that everyone could get a feeling of the trust walk.

2:30-3:00 We went back into the large meeting room and sat down, this time not in groups but anywhere. It was time to wind things up. We talked about the day and what it had meant. The responses were entirely positive, and those of us who had planned the day were happy. For the very last activity we formed a very large circle and clasped the hands of the persons on either side of us. Then one of the Americans led us in a very effective chant:

> Listen, listen to my heart song,
> Listen, listen to my heart song,
> I will never forget you; I will never
> forsake you,
> I will never forget you; I will never
> forsake you.

At the end of about five minutes of chanting, I said "goodbye," and the planned activities were over. The goodbyes took longer than we had imagined because people were making plans to get together again and were exchanging phone numbers. I heard one foreign student say to an American, "Do you live lonely?" meaning, of course, "Do you live alone?" The American caught on to the mistake immediately, but smiled and said, "Yes, wouldn't you like to visit me sometime; I am often lonely." And indeed, many of the students really did get together again. There was, for example, a follow-up party at the home of one of the American students from Cerritos College. I'm sure I'll never know exactly how many are still getting together. Most of our students have told us that the ICW meant more to them than anything they have experienced in this country so far.

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CERTIFICATION IN TESL

by Marilyn Appelson
Oakton Community College

The teaching of English as a Second Language has arrived at a significant crossroad in its historical development. The impact of an increased population of non-native speakers of English has given rise to an intensified outcry for recognition and licensure of teachers of English to students of other languages. (TESOL)

The educational institutions, professional organizations and agencies involved in the process related to the selection, preparation and certification of teachers possess vested interests. To the 50 or more institutions of higher learning in the United States offering graduate programs in TESOL and their graduates, the issue of certification or licensure cuts deeply into job assurance and security. Certification is inextricably associated with the 1400 institutions of higher education involved in the process of teacher preparation. Within the professional organizations representing ESL teachers, there is an upsurge of agitation for formal recognition. For individuals engaged in K-12 bilingual programs or for ESL instructors in K-12 schools, licensure has different implications and importance than for ESL practitioners in various adult education programs. Controversy over TESOL licensure is fraught with subjectivity and high emotion which tend to reduce objective assessment of the certification issue.

In an effort to gain a clear understanding of the issues involved motives need to be assertained and analyzed. It is important to determine whether vested interests center on legal issues, educational policy, philosophy of education, standards of performance, professional recognition, teacher education and preparation theories, research, tests and measurements or social responsibility. In other words: who wants licensure for ESL teachers and why do they want it?

Teaching has long struggled to secure recognition as a professional endeavor. Teacher organizations, from their inception, have tried to elevate the image of the profession and obtain for teachers the rights typically afforded other professions and professionals. Toward attainment of these goals, licensure has been a major platform. The organizations believe that licensure provides the mechanism and framework for quality control in the teaching profession. Furthermore, in the judgment of TESOL associations, teaching English to students of other languages is clearly certifiable.

Highlights of some specific positions of advocacy for licensure are as follows:

1. Native speakers studying English, French, Mathematics or Biology, etc., are taught by teachers with special training and a license in that specific area. Non-native speakers of English should be instructed under similar quality control conditions.

2. Unlike doctors, dentists and lawyers, who, once licensed, have a career, a teacher though licensed, needs a job before he or she has a career. Without state or local licenses in the field of TESOL, those persons professionally trained in ESL may be denied access to a career.

3. Increased needs of the expanded population of non-native speakers of English has resulted in a patchwork instructional system in the absence of certification regulations. Licensure would provide minimum qualifications for practitioners and help insure quality of instruction.

4. The Federal government and the courts have specified English language instruction must be provided to non-native speakers. It follows that this instruction be given by teachers prepared and certified in TESOL.

5. Teaching is one of the few professions which certifies its practitioners on the basis of fulfilling the requirements of a training program at an approved institution. Since prescribed college courses are an integral part of certification, the teacher preparatory institutions continue to provide the systematic application of a body of knowledge that has been developed by scholarship in the field. Higher educational institutions regard the ends of certification primarily as the acquisition of essential competencies.

In addition to TESOL associations and higher education institutions, Adult Education Associations also regard certification as a necessary mechanism to control the selection and preparation of teachers. They wish to ensure that the most competent and most informed teachers are engaged in the practice of teaching adults, and advocate licensure for teachers of adults regardless of subject area. Their arguments are quite similar to other advocates of licensure. It is their contention that the practice of adult education requires a specific style of teaching, material selection and methodology. The practice of employing teachers who possess valid elementary or secondary teaching certificates to teach adults is disturbing to adult education philosophy because the uniqueness of the adult learner is not addressed in elementary and secondary preparation.

Since many ESL practitioners are engaged in adult education programs, they present an enigma to the certification issue. TESOL associations believe that the arbitrary ages of students should not prevent them from having TESOL specifically certified teachers. Will TESOL certification then place these practitioners who teach English to *adult* students of other languages in the category with certified elementary teachers or secondary teachers certified in specific fields?

Although there is a profound upsurge of interest and action exerted by professional groups urging the extension of certification into the fields of TESOL and adult education, the positive thrust is not unanimous. The minority position advances valid arguments which should also be understood prior to forming opinions on the issues. The arguments presented against certification are:

1. State certification is traditionally based on minimum standards of preparation and training which in effect awards certification equally to potentially poor quality practitioners as well as potentially highly qualified licencees.

2. Certification perpetuates certificate holders rather than innovative practitioners.

3. It is difficult to objectively define the qualities of a good teacher. Certification requirements do not measure an individual's knowledge, skills, abilities or attitudes. Since the standards of training sought by certification are so closely tied to the quality of training offered at preparing institutions, the emphasis should be on the requirements for completion of the training program rather than the certification process.

4. Imposing certification in its current format robs the educational profession of an untold number of talented and desirable people who do not follow the orthodox patterns of teacher preparation. Some of the great teachers of history would be excluded from the practice of teaching today if bound by certification requirements.

5. There is no evidence to prove that certification or licensure has or will guarantee more effective teaching.

The implications of certification will always be viewed subjectively by those affected by or involved in the process. It is hoped that the institutions, organizations and agencies involved in licensure will not loose sight of the teaching profession's social responsibility. Certification or licensure should be viewed as a means rather than an end.

SUGGESTOPEDIA: A THEORY AND A MODEL

by Donna Hurst Shkilevich
University of Colorado, Denver

Current trends in second language learning and teaching include interest particularly in humanism and the humanistic approach. Among the methods that fit beneath the 'humanistic umbrella', various recurrent themes are evident. Many of the basic tenets of Suggestopedia, or the Lozanov Method, are compatible with those of Charles Curran's *Counseling-Learning* and Caleb Gattegno's *The Silent Way*.

It seems obvious that the establishment of a pleasant and trusting environment certainly will both increase learning and make it more enjoyable as well. To promote this environment, there must be warmth, security, and understanding between teacher and learner and among the learners themselves. Once trust has been established, anxieties are resolved and thus more effective learning takes place. Once the learner is relaxed both physically and emotionally, s/he begins to feel more comfortable with making errors and begins to focus on real communication.

One principal theoretical element of Suggestopedia, i.e. the establishment of authority, lies with the learner's perception of the teacher.

We influence their attitudes, affect their motivation, and contribute to their total development as individuals.

The Lozanov Method, or Suggestopedia, is based on the principles of waking state suggestion and how they can be applied to accelerate learning. Much of the theory and many of the philosophies of the method are quite esoteric.

Recent studies conducted show that suggestology, or the science of suggestion, is an effective psychotherapeutic method particularly in the treatment of many illnesses; in reducing pain, curing skin diseases, and even in treating cancer. It has also been shown to affect almost every other communicative process. Suggestopedia has been developed mainly to increase the reserve capacities of the brain (i.e. that 90% unused portion) to improve memory ability. It deals with learning at both conscious and unconscious levels and in activating the brain globally.

There exist four basic truths behind the Lozanov Method; first, the human potential is far greater than we realize and this potential can be tapped right within the classroom. Partly, this can be accomplished by incorporating the use of both sides of the brain simultaneously to involve the whole person in learning, and involving both mental and emotional activities—a system based on an overall approach. Another factor involved includes harmonizing with existing barriers, or overcoming those negative suggestions and feelings on the part of the learner, while maintaining compliance with them. By giving constant praise and encouragement and fostering a pleasant learning experience, the barriers can be dealt with.

Second, the mind functions within the belief system it considers true. That is to say, teacher expectations play an important role in the learner's behavior. High performance will result from high expectations. Pygmalion experiments show that teacher expectations caused children to gain significantly on IQ tests (Ferguson, 1976 and Claiborn, 1969).

Third, one is subject to suggestion, both direct and indirect, both conscious and unconscious. (Examples of indirect suggestion include the effects of body language and even the clothes that we wear.) Our suggestibility, or how prone we are to suggestion, depends on various factors. Lozanov discusses 'suggestive readiness' which varies from person to person and from moment to moment. Studies show that younger people are more suggestible than adults.

Fourth, one learns best in a positive and relaxed atmosphere. The atmosphere that affords the learner the best is one that fosters enjoyment. Physical and mental relaxation between teacher and learners result in maintaining positive attitudes, which in turn affect the internalization of subject matter. Encouragement and praise, along with proper verbal and non-verbal communication, and the use of classical music (which will be discussed later) with its subconscious effects, will create a pleasant learning experience. Again, we can see that these truths ascribe to basic humanistic principles.

To implement the method, certain theoretical elements must be put into practice. Lozanov emphasizes the importance of establishing authority, by first establishing respect. The teacher's suggestion and unobserved messages which are constantly in play, are first perceived by the learner's unconscious mind and are processed down to the conscious level: the teacher's facial expression, tone of voice, attitude towards the students—all of which constitute signals directed toward the unconscious may be more directly responsible for results achieved by the students than the actual logical presentation of the material taught.

Once authority has been established and maintained, the child-like state, or infantilization, can occur. The process of infantilization involves creatively returning the individual to an earlier time, a time which provokes feelings of trust and security. In terms of the child, there seems to exist greater attention and spontaneity which result in a greater ability to memorize and internalize the material. The learner becomes less concerned about making errors since inhibitions are lowered.

The 'concert pseudopassiveness', or concert state, can now take place. The mechanisms of authority and infantilization come into play. Any barriers can be easily overcome. A state of relaxation occurs. The mind becomes ostensibly inactive. It becomes highly receptive toward learning. Rather than attending to memorization, the learner becomes involved 100% with the music. (The music played is classical in nature, having a 4/4 beat, with no overwhelming rhythm, instrumentation, or words.) The whole brain becomes activated. The musical beat smooths out the transference of information. It is during the concert state that the actual language lessons are presented.

I have experienced success in incorporating a modified version of Suggestopedia in my English as a second language class. (Lozanov has modified the method many times himself, and is continually adapting and changing as a result of further studies.)

A basic tenet of Suggestopedia is belief in its pedagogical value to produce effective achievement, both cognitively and affectively. It has been suggested that we have to start from our own roots and have to develop the Suggestopedic Method in our own style; that we should consider different cultural aspects and different educational systems.

The teaching model presented here is one that I have found to be effective in teaching children English as a second language, using a modified suggestopedic approach.

My first task is to establish an atmosphere which is conducive to learning under relaxed conditions, an atmosphere in which the students feel secure and comfortable with me, and with one another as well. In addition to smiles and touches, every day prior to class activities, we do a series of exercises designed to relax and to make the students more comfortable. Specifically, these involve tensing parts of the body, usually working from the toes on up, then relaxing. I stand in the center of the room and, as the students observe, I demonstrate the tensing and relaxing and verbalize what is taking place. The next activity involves having the students extend their arms over their heads and touch their toes, four or five times. Following that we breathe in, hold until the count of four, and breathe out, again four or five times. The students quickly became familiar with the routine and in a few days are calling out parts of the body them-

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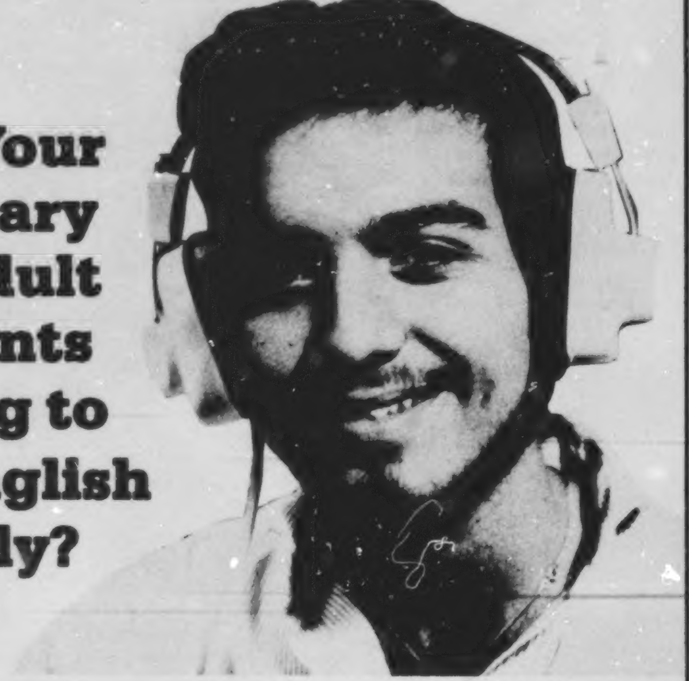

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SUGGESTOPEDIA

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selves and eventually conduct the exercises themselves.

In most other suggestopedic classes, relaxation and reduction of tension is also brought about through 'mind-calming' techniques.

Similarly, techniques such as 'Early Pleasant Learning Restimulation' (remembering pleasant and successful learning experiences) which contribute to the state of infantilization, can be done in the language of the students.

One technique which has been quite effective, contributing to better student involvement and attention, is the 'Fantasy Trip'. Being able to 'take' the child to far-off lands, or become a famous person, frees the mind from the everyday routine. All of the above techniques could effectively be used with students at more proficient language levels, if English is the only language used in the classroom. Otherwise, they can be conducted in the student's native language.

At the initial presentation, or the active concert stage, the students have in front of them a series of pictures (of interest to the students; things from the child's world) with the text written beneath it. The pictures should be graphic enough so as clearly convey the meaning of the written words. Usually the pictures are numbered so that the students are easily able to follow the text. As I read the sentence, the students' attention is focused on the picture, on the words, and on my presentation. The music is played in the background. I usually read each sentence three times and use many facial expressions and gestures, along with variations in the tone of my voice. I read the text in conjunction with the rhythm of the music. Lozanov claims that the use of rhythm affects the physiological processes and facilitates the suggestopedic process. It helps to create a particular attitude and promotes greater memory retention.

Many times the texts are quite lengthy, with as many as 30 pictures and up to 50 new vocabulary words presented in one session.

Also, during the initial presentation, I encourage the students to associate the words presented with something already familiar to them. I accomplish this by providing examples of imagery and association of vocabulary words that are already known to them. For example, 'meat', you *eat meat*, mm—meat, etc. Other associations can be made through gesturing, facial expressions, and through pantomime. Eventually, the students would select their own associations. I can recall on more than one occassion, my students calling out words in their native languages that sounded like or reminded them of the English words. Experiments show that when associations and mental processing occur that performance and memory retention improve.

Throughout this time, for the most part, the students remain quiet (unlike their A-LM counterparts) and attentive.

Following the active segment is the *passive concert stage*. The students are directed not to concentrate on the text or materials, but rather to sit back, relax, and attend only to the music. Calm and soothing music is selected. (Lozanov states that during the active stage the music should be more 'emotional' and during the passive stage more 'philosophical'.) Again they remain quiet as the text is read one more time, and again adapting the rate of speed of the presentation to the existing rhythm of the music.

The next two or three sessions are devoted to practicing the material, the vocabulary and structures, that have been presented during the concert. It is at this point that the teacher can utilize other valid techniques. There are some invaluable techniques which I feel incorporate the total person, may tap the reserve capacities, and involve physical, emotional, and mental processes, and thus stress communicative competence.

Carolyn Gragham has developed a most fascinating tool fr effective language learning called "Jazz Chants". Jazz Chanting is based on the natural rhythm of the spoken language and its relationship with the beat of jazz.

Total Physical Response, or TPR, uses commands which involve physical movement.

Role-playing is a technique advocated by Lozanov. The students act out the dialog or text from the previous day. It is especially during this activity that the students attempt to use the language in seemingly real situations. They begin conversing in the new language. According to Earl Stevick "retelling stories, verbatim or in one's own words, improvising variations of a memorized dialog", contribute to the student's depth of understanding.

How should student errors be dealt with? Lozanov emphasizes that "Mistakes made in conversation should not be corrected immediately, but a situation should be created in which the same words or phrases or similar ones are used by other students or by the teachers themselves. Not only in this phase, but during the whole course the students should never be embarrassed by the mistakes they make. That is why the correction of mistakes is considered one of the most important things in the art of giving suggestopedic instruction."

To reach an even deeper level of cognition, I have found the use of 'attribute cards' to be a highly effective tool. The cards are designed to elicit from the students various attributes of objects and vocabulary words, attributes such as color, shape, size, function, number, group, place, etc. The cards themelves are simply drawn symbols that represent certain attributes. For example, a rainbow represents color. Squares, circles and triangles represent shape, etc. Questions are asked *about* the word so that the student must further process it. To exemplify this technique, the shape card is held beside an object (or picture) which depicts a particular vocabulary word, like 'table'. The student responds by saying, 'The table is rectangle', etc. Again, the level of difficulty, in terms of the type of attribute requested, may be increased as the proficiency level of the student increases.

Other never-ending and forever popular techniques include games, songs, and art projects. All can be used effectively during the practice stage to reinforce the content of the formal presentation. Of particular value are games which incorporate the whole person and simultaneous use of both hemispheres of the brain.* (* The left hemisphere processes verbal and mathematical reasoning, while the right processes the more creative abilities such as appreciation of art and music.)

There should be an emphasis on sensory experience, i.e. touching, smelling, and tasting, hearing (non-verbal), and seeing, whenever applicable. As the student's proficiency level increases, include drama and expression of 'gut level' feelings, intuiting, imaging, divergent thinking; activities which contribute to whole person learning, activities which allow the students to express themselves and become more creative in the process.

The modifications that I have made in order to make the Method workable in my situation, are not extremely different from some of Lozanov's original ideas.

Lozanov also advocates the use of assigning the student a new and occupation, so that s/he comes to assume the role of that person. It is his contention that the student feels less inhibited in making errors, since s/he recognizes the errors as being made by a 'different person'.

In terms of physical room arrangement, Lozanov's ideal class set up includes 12 students (six boys, six girls), with the classroom itself containing soft and unobtrusive lighting, open circle chaise lounge chairs, and a separate stage area. Tlthough my classroom was lacking such luxuries, I attempted to keep it as bright and cheery as possible. Setting up a class with the ideal number of students was also difficult for me to arrange. Whenever feasible, I would try and include other students (both non-native and native-English speaking) to partici-

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SUGGESTOPEDIA

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pate in game situations and a few other activities so that more interaction could take place.

Some teachers might hesitate in using classical music with children. My students were exposed to it at their first class session and recognized its use as part of the class routine. They actually enjoyed it. I believe the music facilitated in not only relaxing the students and making them receptive to learning, but actually contributed to better memory retention by activating right and left brain hemispheres.

Although the Method contributed not only to improved cognitive skills, it also seemed to have positively affected attitude and motivation. All students enjoyed class and were eager to learn.

The Suggestopedic Approach should be recognized as a viable alternative in second language learning and teaching, especially in teaching children English as a second language. The learner can experience a great sense of personal achievement, thus positively affecting his/her self-esteem. S/He can become more spontaneous and confident in communicating a new language. The learner can experience effects on his/her whole person. S/He can become involved in real communication; actually experience it. The Bulgarian researchers think, and rightly so, that direct immersion in a foreign language through the act of communication is one of the major accomplishments of Suggestopedia.

The teacher can come to know the students not only linguistically, but emotionally as well. In addition, the teacher recognizes the power of the unconscious mind, of body language, and what they convey in the total communication process.

We must be prepared to choose intelligently by making ourselves aware of current research and its pedagogical applications. We must be willing to attempt to use and experiment with a variety of techniques in order to expose our students to as many different learning styles as possible. By doing so, we will be exploring the human potential.

LEARNING ENGLISH THROUGH THE MEDIUM OF POETRY

by Margaret Paroutaud

Where has all the poetry gone? The current reading texts which we use for teaching English to our international students are excellent in the sense that they express human values and attitudes and they introduce our students to the history and culture of the U.S. Good, so far. But I deplore the lack of poetry.

Now, I have always felt that poetry plays a vital role in the learning of a language. Having learned French as a second language, I realize that I was fortunate to have had teachers who were sensitive to the delights of lyrical poetry. It is stored in the psyche and in the memory and it stays with us long after the sound of the prose passage has died away. Probably we have all had the experience of some poetry spoken or read to us in some distant class-room. When we were very young, perhaps, or when there was some special festivity coming up:

> "Listen, my children, and you shall hear
> Of the midnight ride of Paul Revere"

Sensing that 'something was missing', I added poetry to the class reading-hour in the following way. I have placed lines of poetry, or stanzas in an envelope and have distributed envelopes to the class. One envelope to a student. As our classes are rather small, we get to know the students relatively well when they have been with us for two or more terms. We know something of the personality of each student. Thus, I would never 'assign' one single poem to an entire class. Further, I feel that the quickest way to assassinate a poem and to kill any possible interest is to 'assign' it. Do NOT say: "Now, today you are all going to learn this poem." Rather, try to match a poem or a fragment of poetry to the temperament of your student. One Saudi student was so deeply moved by the lines:

> "I think that I shall never see
> A poem lovely as a tree."

that he asked for the rest of the poem.
Incidentally, some valuable lessons are to be learned from these lines:
The comparison of the adjective, the adverb correctly placed, and the tense of the verb. All painlessly acquired and fixed in the memory.
Another student, from Japan, became very fond of the line:

> "My candle burns at both ends;"

An engineering student was intrigued by the poem of Flecker:

> "I care not if you bridge the seas,
> Or ride secure the cruel sky,"

Perhaps I should explain here that I have been teaching young adults from a vari- to be learned from these lines: the comparison of the adjective, the adverb correctly placed, and the tense of the veb. All painlessly acquired and fixed in the memory. Another student, from Japan, became very fond of the lines: ety of countries: from Saudi Arabia, Libya, Iran, Kuwait, Japan, the People's Republic of China, Switzerland, Sweden, France and Latin America. In one class, I may have students from six or seven different countries.

What is the role of the teacher in all this? I feel that he or she can read poems, or play a cassette with recorded poems and then the student may speak some lines which appeal to him. See it, hear it, and write it. Say a portion of it. Provide time for discussion. It is true that: "a poem should not 'mean'—but *be*." (Archibald Macleish, Ars Poetica.) But I am not against discussion. In fact, I am all for it. If a student asks: "What does it mean?" We have a good opportunity here to say: "There is a saying: 'You cannot go on like that—burning the candle at both ends . . .'" If you take a candle to class with you the image is very easily demonstrated and understood.

For those of us who teach in the United States, there is a vast supply of poetry available to us. Why not use it? I suppose that my colleagues teaching in New England would naturally turn to Robert Frost. Here in Monterey which is somewhat of a happy hunting-ground for poetry, we have: Stevenson (R.L.S.), Robinson Jeffers, Eric Barker, Joan Baez. All of these have lived on the Monterey Peninsula and have written their poetry 'within the sound of the surf.' What a marvelous opportunity for those of us who teach English to give our international students some glimpse of the world of poetry in the U.S.! (And at the same time to give them some of the rhythm and music of the language.) I think that we tend to forget that this is a natural and unmechanical way of learning.

When we present poetry in class we are reaching out to another human being; heart to heart.

> "Now that you have spelt your lesson,
> lay it down and go and play,
> Seeking shells and seaweed on the
> sands of Monterey,
> Watching all the mighty whalebones,
> lying buried by the breeze,
> Tiny sandy-pipers, and the huge
> Pacific seas.
>
> Robert Louis Stevenson.

USING SHORT STORIES IN THE ADVANCED ESL COMPOSITION CLASS

Mary Ruetten Hank
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The use of literature in the ESL classroom fell into disfavor at the heyday of the audio-lingual method, perhaps as a reaction to the earlier grammar translation method which concentrated on translating literature, and has not been seriously considered since. Having been thoroughly schooled in the notion that literature has no place in ESL, I looked with skepticism at a collection of short stories I was given to accompany an expository composition text in an advanced freshman composition class for international students. At the outset of the class, I thought I would have preferred a prose reader on relevant modern topics. However, my skepticism turned to pleasant surprise when I found that the short stories provided excellent material for class discussions and compositions in which different rhetorical techniques could be practiced.

The objection to using literature in ESL has been summed up by Donald M. Topping (1968:95): "literature has no legitimate place in a second-language program whose purpose is to teach language skills to a cross section of students who are preparing for studies or work in a variety of disciplines." Even the use of literature to familiarize second languague learners with English or American culture has been rejected by Topping (1968:99) on the grounds that literature reflects "tradition, a past stage in the evolution of American culture." Furthermore, the problem Gatbonton and Tucker (1971) refer to as "cultural filtering," the judging of a work of literature from a different cultural perspective and hence misreading the intent of the author, can be persistent. Certainly my own experience teaching English in Peace Corps Swaziland bore this out. A poem (Thomas 1966) which decried the takeover of man by machine could only be perceived as a glorification of machines in that developing third-world country. The problems connected with the use of literature in ESL—relevance, cultural filtering, simplification—have seemed so persistent and so overwhelming that I had never seriously considered using any literature in ESL until I was given a short story text as a *fait accompli*.

I found, to my surprise, that at least in one ESL situation, short stories can work very well. I would agree that the use of literature is probably out of place at elementary and intermediate levels of ESL instruction where students are still mastering the basic syntactic patterns of the language and have a fairly limited vocabulary. I would also question its use in some English-as-a-foreign-language situations. My form III (tenth grade) students in Swaziland simply did not have either the language facility or cross-cultural sophistication to understand the intent of the poem mentioned above. However, on the college freshman level, we are generally dealing with students who have had years of English study and who have obtained quite a high degree of proficiency in the language. According to Zamel (1976), the language skills being taught in an ESL freshman composition class are essentially the same as the skills American students are learning. This is true, she says, because second language learners by this time have developed the competence necessary to communicate through composition. Furthermore, many of our students have already spent several years in the United States, where they have been in constant contact with American culture. As a result, they have developed a certain degree of understanding of our culture and of cross-cultural sophistication. Cultural filtering should not present a significant problem. Also, these students are generally older, more studious, and more mature than their American freshman counterparts. They have already formulated ideas about the world and consider their ideas important. These students, I believe, can profit from reading short stories and writing about them.

In most freshman composition courses, the main focus is on development of writing skills using different rhetorical techniques such as cause/effect, example, definition, and comparison/contrast. The freshman composition class which I taught used Robert G. Bander's second edition of *American English Rhetoric* (1978) as its basic text. The Bander text gives short passages as examples of the rhetorical techniques being studied. However, it does not have longer passages which would prompt class discussions or composition topics. The classic problem for the composition teacher is to devise composition topics which both interest and challenge all the students and of which they all have knowledge. In most freshman composition courses, some sort of prose reader, often containing quasi-professional or popular articles on current topics like pollution or population control, is used for this purpose (e.g. Jacobus 1978, Baumwoll and Saitz 1965. Hirasawa and Markstein 1974). Instead of this type of reader, I used Jean A. McConochie's *20th Century American Short Stories* (1975), which contains nine modern American short stories, to accompany Bander. McConochie (1975:xi) did not simplify the short stories but chose them "on the criteria of recognized literary quality, brevity, and cultural and linguistic accessibility to non-native speakers of American English." I found that this collection of short stories worked well to provide composition topics while allowing practice in different rhetorical techniques.

The short stories were beneficial for several reasons. First, since literature has the quality of being universal, the short stories allowed us to deal with *human* problems. In our class discussions we explored questions about the essential nature of human beings, what is common to all of us. In the American university system, many international students feel cut off from and misunderstood by Americans. Class discussions allowed students to voice some of these feelings, focus on them, and perhaps gain some perspective on them. For example, in Jesse Stuart's story "Love," the father kills a beneficial snake on his farm just because he hates all snakes. This led to a discussion of prejudice, war, hate and love. This helped students in my class to understand, at least philosophically, some of the adverse reactions which Americans displayed toward them and which they had about Americans.

Then, in the writing assignments, a student can take an essentially human problem and analyze his own feelings and attitudes. Since he is drawing from his own experience, the problem of not having knowledge about the subject, as might occur on a topic about pollution, does not come up. Further, because he is expressing his own personal feelings about an issue, the student tends to see the topic as important, gets involved in it, and will spend a good deal of time on it. According to Zamel (1976:74), "The act of composing should become the result of a genuine need to express one's personal feeling, experience, or reaction." Although writing about American students, Fenstermaker (1977:35) makes the same point when he says "The literature based course offers students excellent practice in writing about subjects of real substance from the perspective afforded by genuine involvement." I found that the topics which required students to draw from their own personal attitudes and philosophy were perceived as "real," mature, worthy of their time and effort, while the topics assigned out of the text, on say comparing two universities or two cities, were perceived as mere exercises. The opportunity to write about personal values and beliefs, especially when so many ESL students are otherwise studying science and engineering, affords them a useful release mechanism.

The danger in writing about personal values and feelings is producing a theme which is a string of generalizations and familiar platitudes. Because we had read the short stories, the students had something specific to react

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USING SHORT STORIES

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to. I could assign topics which needed specific support from the stories or which made students deal concretely with the ideas in the stories. In this process, we could also practice the different rhetorical techniques we were studying. For example, Jesse Stuart's "Love" and John Collier's "The Chaser" both deal with love. Students can compare and/or contrast the two authors' concepts of love or compare and contrast them with their own ideas on love. Because they had something to compare to, this assignment made students try to define their own concept of love quite carefully and in relation to love as shown in the stories. Further, Stuart's story contains several different kinds of love, that is, parent/child love, male/female love, and love of nature. In another assignment, students can be asked to classify and explain the different types. Some of my students wrote excellent argumentative papers on Shirley Jackson's "The Lottery" in which they asserted that the lottery in the story was either a superstition or a religious practice according to definitions of those terms and then supported their assertion with evidence from the story. Also, an interesting cause/effect assignment could be worked out on "The Secret Life of Walter Mitty." The story contains detailed, concrete objects and incidents that touch off Mitty's daydreams. There is also the larger question of what causes Mitty to escape into his daydreams. Or, in the Walter Mitty story one could compare what is considered heroic, both cross-culturally and personally. These are just some of the possible writing assignments springing from the short stories that require concrete, specific development.

I would not like to suggest that ESL instructors adopt short stories wholesale for use in composition classes. In order for short stories to both spark discussions and provide worthwhile composition topics, some care must be taken in selection. For instance, in McConochie's text, I could not find a use for "The Use of Force" by William Carlos Williams, so I omitted it. I also feel that the kinds of topics which are discussed in most prose readers, such as pollution and population control, are important and relevant. They allow students to deal more impersonally with issues that are crucial in our modern world. Perhaps an ideal situation in the freshman ESL composition class would be the incorporation of both short stories, to deal with human problems, and prose readings, to point up practical/technical problems. After all, a truly educated person should have the composing facility to deal with both.

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IT WORKS

Edited by Darlene Larson
New York University

TEACHING CULTURAL AWARENESS WITH *THE GRADUATE*

by James B. Brown
East-West Center Culture Learning Institute

Elaine was still trying
to catch her breath.
She turned her face to
look at him. For several
moments she sat looking at
him, then she reached
over and took his hand.
'Benjamin?' she said.
'What.'
The bus began to move.

For several weeks my students—English majors at a Japanese university—had been reading *The Graduate*, by Charles Webb. We had read about the infamous Mrs. Robinson and about Benjamin's bumbling courtship of her daughter. We'd seen Mr. Braddock forbid Benjamin, his son, to see Elaine, and had sympathized with Mr. Robinson when he broke off a 17-year business relationship with Mr. Braddock and decided to divorce his wife—all on Benjamin's account. At last we came to the final chapter: Carl Smith is going to marry Elaine in a Santa Barbara church. Benjamin shows up at the wedding at the last minute. "Elaine! !" He punches Mr. Robinson in the face, grabs Elaine, attacks the bridegroom, and finally manages to exit after threatening to bludgeon a clergyman with a bronze cross. Ben and Elaine sprint to a bus, and pound on the doors to get on. Seated in the back, Elaine takes Benjamin's hand. The bus drives away. A happy ending.

After we had finished the chapter, I wrote a statement on the blackboard, 'This book could have been written in Japan,' and asked the students to indicate their agreement or disagreement. Benjamin had caused his family considerable distress, had disobeyed his father's wishes, and had physically attacked fellow members of his society. In Japan, even in the world of fiction, eventual marriage to Elaine would be impossible. More likely, Benjamin would be punished by his society—a favorite theme of Japanese literature.

Literature. No one approaches this area without some already-established ideas. Together with literature and literary study go notions of 'great literature', 'the classics', 'literary art', and the entire set of concepts associated with literary study as an academic discipline. Yet how often in the study of a literary text are students asked, "Could this have been written in your culture?" Almost never, in spite of the evident truth that any author writes in a specific social, cultural and historical context. As English language teachers, many of us do introduce literary texts into the classroom, and in so doing we are setting up an interaction of two (or more) cultural situations, the one embodied in the text and that or those of the students.

Chapter one of *The Graduate* begins: *Benjamin Braddock graduated from a small Eastern college on a day in June. Then he flew home. The following evening a party was given for him by his parents.*
An American style party is described, with highballs mixed in the dining room and guests walking freely about the house. Benjamin is congratulated in the American idiom: Mr. Terhune shakes his hand, "Goddammit I'm proud of you"; Mrs. McQuire is "thrilled to pieces". Ben gulps down a straight bourbon, while Mr. Terhune just "sips at" his drink.

Vocabulary, expressions, and American drinking etiquette can be handled by explanation. One-sided explanation, however, fails to take into account student-material interaction. Unless student reactions are brought out and worked with, the all-too-typical separation of the learner and the materials is maintained. Seeking, then, to overcome this separation, I used a brief sentence completion exercise, with the frame, 'I wonder why ______?' This quickly produced questions such as,

I wonder why none of Ben's friends are at the party?
—couples are there together?
—people are walking all over the house?
—Ben's parents are having this party?
—Ben is being so rude to everyone?

The students explained that no Japanese parents would organize a graduation party, that parties at which the guests are primarily couples are rare, and that living room to dining room to kitchen meanderings would be very much frowned upon. In these explanations, the students were talking about their own culture as well as talking about a type of cultural behavior they would never encounter in Japan.

"Language learners often have a tendency to separate language and activity," writes Richard Via in his *English in Three Acts* (p. 56),[1] referring to how new student actors memorize their lines then recite them without accompanying movement. We might extend this to, "Language learners often forget to see language *as* activity"—language occurs in a specific situation and is produced by people who are acting both verbally and non-verbally. The problem is thus one of finding a technique which will enable students to *feel* language which otherwise exists only on the printed page.

Via proposes just such a technique, which he calls Talk and Listen. Originally used by actors as an aid in learning scripts, it is effective in helping one to communicate rather than recite. Talk and Listen lifts language out of the materials, bringing it closer to the student by getting him or her to actually use it in *talking* to fellow students and in *listening* to them. How does this technique work? Prepare cards containing a natural exchange between two (possibly three) speakers. From four to ten short lines are best. Each card has the lines of only one speaker, so that a student must listen carefully to his or her partner. For example, here are two sets of cards which I used, the lines coming from chapter one of *The Graduate*:

#1

Mrs. Pearson: Benjamin? I'm just speechless.
Benjamin: . . .
Mrs. Pearson: Golly you did a fine job back there.
Benjamin: . . .

#1

Mrs. Pearson: . . .
Benjamin: um-hum.
Mrs. Pearson: . . .
Benjamin: I'm sorry to seem rude, but I'm trying to go on a walk right now.

#2

Mr. Robinson: Ben, how in the hell are you? You look swell.
Benjamin: . . .
Mr. Robinson: Say, that's something out in the garage. That little Italian job your old man gave you for graduation? Let's go for a spin.
Benjamin: . . .
Mr. Robinson: What?
Benjamin: . . .
Mr. Robinson: Well sure. But I thought you'd take me for a little spin yourself.

#2

Mr. Robinson . . .
Benjamin: I'm fine.
Mr. Robinson . . .
Benjamin: Here're the keys. Can you work a foreign gearshift?
Mr. Robinson . . .
Benjamin: Do you know how to operate a foreign gearshift?
Mr. Robinson . . .
Benjamin: I can't right now. Excuse me.

No novel has ever recorded genuine spoken English. The dialogue in *The Graduate* is surprisingly close to real speech, however, with short sentences, ellipsis, and reliance on intonation, is

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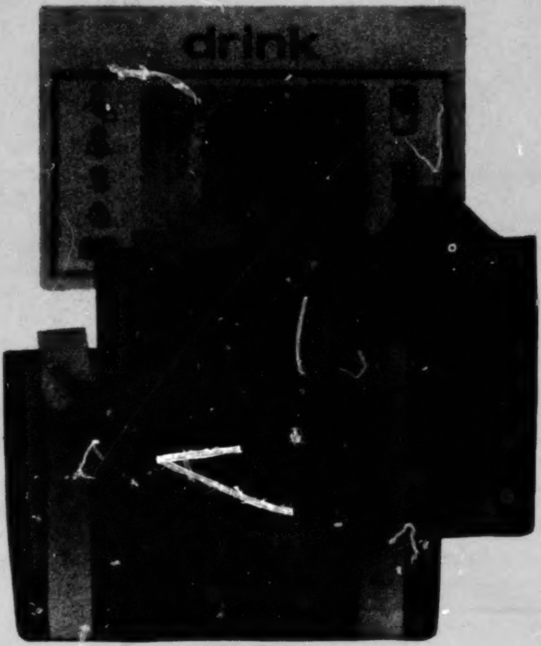

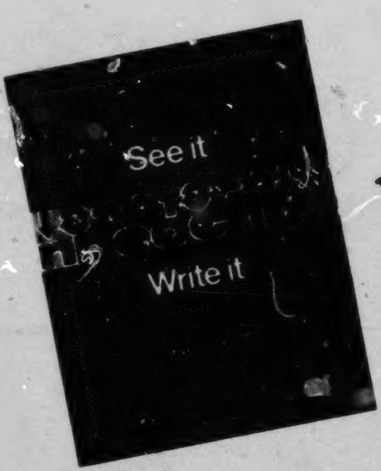

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IT WORKS

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particularly appropriate for Talk and Listen. You needn't copy directly from a text, but should feel free to make changes. This may mean breaking up sentences which are too long for a spoken utterance, for instance. The Talk and Listen exchanges should present coherent discourse units which can stand by themselves.

The students work in pairs, positioned so that eye contact is readily made. The student who is going to speak looks at a line, reads it silently, then looks up at his or her partner and *speaks*, reciting, as much of the line as can be remembered. The card can be referred to as often as necessary, but not read aloud. When speaking a line, eye contact is maintained. The partner during this time is *listening*, not looking at the card.[2]

An interesting observation which can be made here is that just as a literary text need not be treated with any of the traditional tools of literary study, a drama technique need not be used only in producing a play. Talk and Listen, relaxation exercises, mime, and other drama techniques can profitably be added to any language teacher's repertoire.

To further intensify the learning experience, I coupled the Talk and Listen cards with the use of a tape recorder. After the students had practiced their lines, they were given a small cassette tape recorder with a microphone which could be held by hand. There was an on-off switch on the microphone. The first student to speak would hold the mike, turning it toward the partner when s/he spoke. By using the switch, pauses which occurred when one partner had to stop and check the card were cut out. The recording then allowed me to work more easily on pronunciation and intonation in a manner which benefited the whole group. Secondly, when students heard themselves speaking the lines, it gave them even more of a chance to experience their utterances as language in use, versus "only lines in a book".

The payoff of the Talk and Listen and tape recorder exercises came after a reflection period, when several students were able to clearly express that they had felt uncomfortable in speaking Benjamin's lines. You may recall that earlier someone had asked, "I wonder why Ben is being so rude to everyone?" Rudeness is very much a culture-bound notion, and the boundaries of rudeness are drawn differently in different cultures. Still using the Talk and Listen cards, I asked the students to alter Benjamin's responses so that, for them, they were no longer rude. Many of the changes reflected Benjamin's age, the fact that he was younger than any of the others at the party being extremely important to a Japanese. A second reflection period revealed that the students now felt more at ease in speaking the revised lines. It should be noted that these lines took into account *their* perception of the situation and of what would be appropriate language in it.

One can focus on feelings such as the above as well as other aspects of language in use with another approach, Values Clarification.[3] Although the goal of this approach and its strategies—interviewing, rank-ordering, forced choice, values continuum, and sentence completion—is often stated as helping students to choose and act on their own values, my aim in using Values Clarification with *The Graduate* was to help the students become more aware of cross-cultural interaction, so that they would be able to use English successfully in a variety of situations. Charles Webb wrote *The Graduate* against the background of a specific social and cultural context, and the language, actions and decisions of his characters reflect that context and are given coherence by it. Yet much of this language and many of the actions were considered to be "strange", "crazy" and even incomprehensible by my Japanese students. I'm not speaking here of Benjamin's eccentricities, but of aspects of the book which a reader with an American cultural background would find to be expected, normal, in short, aspects to which little attention would be paid.

Benjamin is having an affair with Mrs. Robinson, Elaine's mother. Much against Benjamin's will and Mrs. Robinson's wishes, he is forced by his father to invite Elaine out for an evening. He takes her out, but is rude to her, embarrasses her, and when she finally begins to cry and asks to be taken home, he . . . kisses her! He later that evening declares, "Elaine? I like you. I like you so much." Love at first sight? Head over heels in love? Later, when Mrs. Robinson reveals her affair with Benjamin in order to prevent her daughter from seeing him, Elaine is consternated. But Benjamin? Then after he had been home for nearly a month and Christmas had passed and the new year had started he decided to marry Elaine.

Granted, even American readers would be surprised by this plot development. Yet snap decisions concerning marriage are hardly alien to American culture. The case is altogether different in Japan, and my students' reactions here were ones of surprise, incredulity, even laughter. To enable us to reflect on these reactions, I introduced a rank-ordering exercise: "(1) Rank the following in order of importance, according to their influence on Benjamin's decision—the opinion of his family / the opinion of Elaine's family / love / the Robinson's social position / etc.; (2) If *you* were Benjamin, what would be most important/least important for you? (Same items.)" The students felt that for Benjamin, considerations of family and of what people might think ranked low, whereas for the great majority of the students themselves, family was ranked as first or second in importance. A failure to explore the students' reactions here would have undermined further reading of the book, as Webb has built the plot on a panoply of American cliches, including the romantic tradition ("love will out"), full-steam-ahead individualism, and the ever-popular happy ending.

I next tried to show my students that the perception of cultural differences works both ways, by having them read a selection from *Developing Reading Skills*, by Hirasawa and Markstein, "We Japanese".[4] I told them that there was something in this text which I found to be hard to understand, and asked them to try to find it. After twenty minutes, the statement I had in mind still hadn't been mentioned: The speaker in the text, a Japanese, talks about how his marriage had been an arranged one and explains that he agreed to marry his wife

> *because she is from a good family and is healthy and well brought-up. She is a good wife, and after we had been married for a year or so, I became fond of her.*

No one thought this might be the statement, because it was so *normal*. (A group of ten Japanese men, all married, with whom I also did this exercise agreed that each one of them could have made a similar statement.)

Talk and Listen and Values Clarification were used at many other points throughout the book. The amount and variety of English language activity and learning experiences produced support my belief that "IT WORKS!" I would like to explain, however, that this study of *The Graduate* was not undertaken as a "this-is-the-way-it-is" teaching of American culture. The underlying pedagogical motivation was quite different.

'Culture' has many definitions, each valid in its own domain. Literature has long been seen as Culture, with capital 'C'—one of the stable, tangible, transportable and purchasable products of a given group. This type of culture has its place in language study, but in using the expressions 'cultural context', 'cross-cultural interaction', and 'cultural differences' in the above, I have used 'cul-

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AND IN METHODOLOGY

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Sociolinguistics is the study of natural language in all of its various social and cultural contexts. This clearly presented collection emphasizes the importance of sociolinguistics for the teaching of English as a second or foreign language, and presupposes no previous knowledge of the subject. The articles discuss communicative competence and language learning, the interrelations of language, education, and social change, standard and non-standard language, and curriculum design. Contributors include Walt Wolfram and Ralph Fasold, Andrew Cohen and Merrill Swain, and Susan Ervin-Tripp.

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IT WORKS

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ture' in a rather different sense. 'Culture' can be used to refer to the common way of life of a social group. That commonality is based on shared beliefs and knowledge, often expressible in terms of values, by which behavior is organized. It is on the basis of culture in this sense that the behavior of individuals is anticipated, considered to be positive or negative, normal or anomalous.

This culture is a powerful factor in the classroom. We must take into account the cultural backgrounds of the teacher as well as that or those of the students. Very importantly, consideration must be given to the cultural contexts in which students are or will be using their English. If, as is the case with Japanese, the students will mainly be speaking with members of other cultures, including those whose members are not native speakers of English, then a central pedagogical goal will be one of developing an awareness of the existence of cultural differences. Given such an awareness, the likelihood that such differences will become hindrances to successful communication in English is reduced. The type of teaching which has been exemplified above with *The Graduate* is a definite step toward the attainment of this goal.

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A LOOK AT TOTAL PHYSICAL RESPONSE (TPR)

by Carol Weiner
Northeastern Illinois University

The Total Physical Response (TPR) is an approach to language learning devised by James Asher, a psychologist at San Jose College, California. The TPR method claims to produce rapid, nonstressful and effective language learning using a strategy that achieves accelerated listening fluency in the target language of the student. This is achieved through the mode of synchronizing language listening with body movements.

TPR is an approach derived from the strategies of children learning their first language. Children acquire a high level of listening ability for English long before they are able to say their first words. They can follow simple and complex commands before these words are spoken. Asher (1972) believes the child's listening comprehension is not only far superior to his speaking, but is also critical to the development of speaking. He believes this is so because the brain and nervous systems are biologically programmed to acquire language in the sequence of listening before speaking. Therefore, in TPR, the first stage of training focuses upon only listening, followed by an action. Of the four language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing, Asher believes listening has the most positive transfer to the above areas.

The learning strategy is to let the student listen to a command in English and immediately follow with the physical action. For example, the teacher gives the command, "stand up", and along with the teacher the students stand up. Brief utterances are used at the beginning, but as Asher claims, the "morphological and syntactical complexity" of the command can be increased to:

Stand up and walk to the door.

Stand up and walk to the door and open it.

Many experiments have been conducted (Asher 1964, 1969, 1972, 1974) to examine the questions of whether: 1. all linguistic features of the target language can be achieved with TPR, and 2. will there be a positive transfer from listening to the other 3 language skills areas. The findings were encouraging. Most of the grammatical features of a language can be utilized in the imparative form; also listening has a positive transfer in the areas of reading, writing and speaking.

What accounts for this technique's effectiveness is believed to be the action, which facilitates and accelerates the comprehension of language learning. Asher (1964) found that the action was extremely important in the retention of many complex utterances, even though there was a long interval between the act and the retention test. However, Asher has tested and also found that if the students attempted to learn listening and speaking together, their comprehension decreased.

Many other methods use the imparative drill, but only in TPR is oral production delayed until language comprehension has been developed, as responding physically seems to produce long-term memory storage.

For those interested in learning more about this method, Asher has a film called, "Demonstration of a New Strategy in Language Learning", which is available from the film library at the University of California, Berkeley. In this film he shows how three 12 year old boys show their understanding of complex Japanese utterances after only 20 minutes of training. It also shows retention after a delay of one year. Asher also has a book titled, "Learning Another Language through Actions" (1977) Los Gatos CA, Sky Oak Productions.

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"TURN OVER" IN THE ESL PROFESSION

by Jack Longmate
Seattle Pacific University

Many things about the TESL field happily suggest growth and stability. For one thing, the TESOL organization experienced a 12% growth in membership last year, indicating that more and more people are employed in ESL and consider themselves ESL professionals.

But the brillant growth has to be viewed in terms of the numbers of trained and experienced ESL teachers who give up the field because of the instability they see for themselves by staying in TESL: the low pay and low status, infrequent cost of living adjustments, etc. Is there any reason to rejoice when twenty new people come into the field if ten or fifteen have just given it up?

This apparent "turn over" might seem to be advantageous for some; more trainees imply more university teacher trainer positions. But such "advantages" are far outweighed by the deleterious effects on all, including the teacher trainer, of having a field that is in practice transitory to other fields. Training individuals for short-term careers is as futile as training people for jobs soon to be taken over by machines. The security of everyone at every level is threatened when a field's fundamental personnel are being forced out. To quote an astute colleague: "Every time another colleague leaves, the profession takes a step backwards. Training ESL teachers for 5- to 10- year careers is not cost effective and no profession can afford to continually lose proven, competent members." (Bogotch, 1979)

Is the dead-endedness of TESL and the attrition of TESL people inevitable? Some might say yes. There is not much hold on the market teaching English in an English speaking country. And, after all, teaching itself is a field notorious for low pay. But the low status is more the result of a lack of uniform standards and bargaining organizations. Of course, the field is represented by TESOL, a thriving organization. But only as of the San Francisco Convention, with the Resolution dealing with health and life insurance for uninsured members and the excellent 8-point Resolution on employment issues, has TESOL begun to address these issues that are indeed as primary as academic ones.

Making TESL a true career would benefit not simply those employed in TESL. Our country would be served since the field is an important instrument for confronting social issues. What is the future of the Indochinese refugee, the Hispanic groups, and other non-native speaking immigrant or resident populations in the United States? If being on welfare is their calling, then learning English takes on the importance of a mere pastime or hobby. It is entirely appropriate, then, for ESL instructors to be acknowledged as hobbiests. If, however, we are sincere in assisting these groups to lead productive lives in our country, and to achieve self-sufficiency and adaptation, then the ESL teacher must be allowed to relate to the field as much more than just a hobby. He must be allowed to have security in his profession.

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THE CHALLENGE OF TEACHING IN CHINA

by Virginia French Allen

"What counts most is what we learn after we know it all." This text, which I first saw on a notice-board outside a California church, has helped launch many a graduate course and in-service workshop. Yet is can apply equally well to overseas teaching experience, as Francis Shoemaker and I discovered during our recent weeks in the People's Republic of China.

Between us, during our long careers, my husband and I had logged a fair number of contact hours with teachers and students abroad. We thought we knew a lot about the satisfactions to be derived from educational missions in other countries. But the PRC in 1980 is not just another country: it is an English teacher's paradise.

There, after many years of being deprived of opportunities to learn the language, people are incredibly eager for English, and for links with American life. In Wuhan (a city of four million on the Yangtze River) the large lecture halls where we spoke were jammed each day, even during the Sunday sessions that were inserted into the program at the last minute. Near-riots occurred during the distribution of our handouts, while members of the audience scrambled for copies. Everywhere we were beseiged by young men and women who sought help with passages underlined in their books, begged us to write inspirational messages along with our autographs, and earnestly inquired what they could do to learn more English fast.

Our hosts worried that the constant barrage of questions was making us "work too hard." They kept trying to fend off the masses of students who surrounded us on stairways, in corridors,

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CHINA CHALLENGE

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after lectures and during intermissions. Little did our Chinese colleagues understand how sweet such enthusiasm was to us!

Francis and I formed half the team—jestingly dubbed the "Gang of Four"—who had been invited to Wuhan by the president of Huazhong Institute of Technology. The other members of the team were Frank Sutman (Director of Temple University's MERIT Center) and Eugene Ching (Professor of East Asian Languages and Literatures at the Ohio State University). We were there to conduct teacher seminars (though *seminar* was a misnomer considering the size of the groups—250 to 500) and also, in fact mainly, to work out a plan for long-term cooperation between the Huazhong Institute and our two American universities.

As China's counterpart to M.I.T., the H.I.T. is destined to play a major role in the modernization of the country. In addition to its work in forty specialties (ranging from shipbuilding to electronic engineering), the H.I.T. has nine research centers. The spacious campus has facilities for accommodating an anticipated tripling of its present enrollment of 6,000 during the next few years. Almost immediately, more faculty will be needed—especially faculty able to help students with the English textbooks which are used extensively in science and technology courses.

We were told that no adequate source for those additional teachers exists in China beyond the H.I.T.'s own campus: the Institute must train its own. Temple and Ohio State are to assist by sending groups of Americans trained in TESOL, to help the Foreign Language Faculty at the H.I.T. prepare teachers of English. The plan calls for preparing a larger number than may be needed at the Institute, since many who are to receive the training will doubtless be lured away to other jobs in tourism, business and industry.

Temple and Ohio State are currently recruiting teachers for the summer of 1980, in addition to more than a dozen who have already signed on. The group will stop in Denver in mid-June for a three-day orientation session to be held at the newly founded Spring School, which specializes in ESOL activities. During that time Francis and I will share what we learned from our experience in Wuhan. They will then proceed via San Francisco and Hongkong for a 10-week term in China (the last two weeks to be spent in touring points of cultural interest—one of many fringe benefits offered by the H.I.T.) Travel to and from China will be the responsibility of the American teacher (approximate cost $2,000) but the People's Republic will provide for all maintenance and internal travel, including the two-week tour, for which regular tourists pay an estimated $3,000.

The summer program will be just the first phase of the project. American TESOL specialists will also be needed at Huazhong Institute of Technology for the school year (either one semester or both semesters, as the applicant prefers) during 1980-81 and for subsequent years as well. The students will be Chinese university teachers (and prospective teachers) who will want to improve their own English while bringing themselves up to date on TESOL methodology.

If you are seriously interested in teaching in China, write and enclose full vita to Dr. Eugene Ching, Department of East Asian Languages, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio 43210 (Tel. 614-422-5816).

A knowledge of Chinese is *not* required. The Institute would be glad to include Chinese Americans in the program if they have a native speaker's command of English and have had TESOL training and experience.

The quality of the experience awaiting Americans who teach in China can be seen in this excerpt from a letter we have just received from one of the youngest H.I.T. students, aged 21:

> "I am ready to take any hardships so long as I can gain access to success. But I am at my wits' end what to do. Francis Bacon says in his *On Studies*, 'Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and some few to be chewed and digested.' But I don't know what to taste, what to swallow, what to digest.
>
> "Without your instructions, I am afraid I cannot get to the access to success in spite of my will. I sincerely hope you will enlighten me on what to learn, how to learn. . . . I consider myself a pupil of yours, who has not paid any fees, but won't you feel spiritually rewarded when I, a Chinese student, under your instructions, become successful?!"

That is the challenge of the PRC in the 1980s. It is indeed an English teacher's dream.

TEN THINGS I HAVE LEARNED ABOUT LEARNING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Richard Showstack
Tokyo, Japan

There are now many fine professional journals containing articles by and for language teachers about language learning. Unfortunately, however, there are rarely any articles printed by and for language learners about language learning.

In the process of studying three foreign languages over a period of eleven years in five countries, and of teaching English as a foreign language for five years in three different countries, I believe I have learned some valuable things about learning a foreign language. Therefore, from the point of view of a language learner, I would like to pass some of these ideas on to other foreign language learners and teachers.

1. Studying a language is not the same as learning a language.

There are millions of people all over the world who study foreign languages but there are very few who actually learn to use a foreign language. The reason for this is that most people study a foreign language the way a geologist studies a rock: they try to crack it open and break it into smaller and smaller pieces until they are left with a handful of dust and little else.

Unfortunately, many language teachers do not know the difference between studying and learning a foreign language, for it is far easier to help a student to study than to make sure a student learns. The primary goal of language education should be to help students to learn to use the foreign language, not only to help them to study it.

2. Most people do not know how to learn a foreign language.

Since most people study at most one foreign language, it is not surprising that most language students are not experienced in how to learn a foreign language.

For example, most language students fall into the trap of assuming that all that is necessary to learn a foreign language is to do what the teacher assigns. Or they fall into other learning patterns that are not really useful in improving their language ability.

All beginning language students should be given training in how to learn a foreign language.

3. Most people do not know how to teach a language.

Here I am not referring to people employed as language teachers but rather to "people" in general. When confronted with someone who does not understand what he is saying, the layman will adopt one of the following strategies:

a) He will repeat what he has just said again, exactly as he said it the first time.

b) He will repeat what he has just said, but more slowly or more loudly than the first time.

c) He will repeat what he has just said, but will rephrase it in the simplest possible way.

d) He will try to communicate the same idea using completely different words.

e) He will give up attempting to communicate completely.

From the point of view of a person trying to improve his ability in the foreign language, none of these strategies is as helpful as the last alternative:

f) He will say the same thing again but will explain the second time, what he was saying and how it means what he is trying to communicate.

If this last way were the way most people reacted to someone who does not know their language well, foreign language learning would be much easier. However, most people do not have the time or the sensitivity to react this way.

4. Presentation of content should be in as many modes as possible.

Different students learn things in different ways. And each student needs to learn some things in one way, other things in other ways. The language teacher should try to "bombard" the student with language experiences from as many different directions as possible.

For example, to teach new vocabulary to students, they should be exposed to it in reading, writing, listening and speaking practice as well as in posters, films, etc. And even though two books may teach the "same thing", different books teach the "same thing" in different ways.

If he is exposed to the "same thing" in many different ways, the language student has a better chance of getting a permanent mental "hook" on the content which will fix it in his mind forever.

5. It's easier to learn labels for meanings than meanings for labels.

Essentially, words are only labels for bundles of meanings. If a student already has the understanding of a certain meaning in his head, it is relatively easy for him to learn one way, or several ways, this "meaning" is labeled in a foreign language.

Unfortunately, most foreign language teaching is done in exactly the opposite way: a student is presented with new vocabulary or structures which seem completely arbitrary to him, and then he is asked to associate several meanings with these vocabulary words or structures.

This latter method is by far the easier way to teach a language but it is not necessarily the better way to learn a foreign language.

6. The actual process of learning a language is invisible.

Learning takes place when a new and invisible connection is made in the brain which establishes a relationship in the brain between two previously unrelated external pieces of information. These connections have already been made for one's first language but new connections must be forged for a foreign language.

What we normally recognize as language learning is only the observable external evidence of this learning. Because language learning is invisible, a teacher cannot directly "force" a student to learn. And, likewise, a language teacher should not be satisfied merely with leading the students to exhibit "language-like" behavior.

Rather, the teacher should design activities that force the students to make these new connections in the brain, the one thing in learning a language which a student cannot do for himself. For example, the student should be led to experience things which force him to think in the foreign language, to relate things together which he has previously not related with each other.

Of course, this is a much more strenuous process for the language student than merely repeating what a teacher says or filling in blanks, but it is also a much more effective way of learning a foreign language.

7. Many short exposures are better than a few long exposures to new information.

When you are exposed to something new, your brain has two reactions: first, it realizes that you have been exposed to something new; then it tries to analyze what the new thing is. In order to "learn" something, these two processes must become automatic and effortless.

If you are exposed to something ten times for a short period, then your brain tries to do both of these processes ten times. If you are exposed to the same information only a few times but for a longer period each time, your brain has more time to analyze it but gets less practice in connecting the two processes, and whatever "learning" that takes place is likely to be less permanent.

Therefore, the teacher should try to give the students as much language exposure and practice as possible without worrying so much at each point whether

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TEN THINGS

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the students are "learning" each specific new piece of information. The brain is a marvelous organ which, if given enough exposure, can process enormous amounts of new information. Language teachers should take advantage of this ability as well as the brain's ability to analyze selected bits of new information.

One more point which language teachers should constantly remind themselves of: most people can learn much faster than most people can teach. Therefore, the language teacher should try to keep up with the students' ability to learn rather than force the students to slow down to the pace of the teacher's ability to teach.

8. A student who does not use the language is no different from a student who cannot use it.

Imagine a person who practices piano for ten years but never performs for anyone else's ears.

Likewise, imagine two language students. One has studied a foreign language for ten years, "knows" it perfectly, but never uses it. The other has studied it for two years, constantly makes mistakes, and uses it daily. Which one is the better language learner? Which one is the kind of language user a language program should try to produce?

Too many language students are led to believe that a language is something to be used in the language classroom, but not in real life. In the final analysis, however, the language classroom is only a practice area, and practicing a language is less important than actually using it.

9. You'll never play better in the real game than you do in practice.

Football coaches know this. So do orchestra conductors.

Unfortunately, however, too many language students (and teachers) are content with "almost" learning something in class, and assume that the student will perform up to his ability when he needs to use the language in real life. This rarely is the case, however. If a student performs something 90% well in the structured, comfortable, sympathetic environment of the classroom, he will surely perform no better than this (and will probably perform worse) in real life.

Therefore, the language must, in a sense, be "overlearned" in class if it is to be used correctly and comfortably in real life.

10. Learning a foreign language is usually not the most important thing in a person's life.

Language teachers too often forget that language learners are people first and students second. They have other things on their minds besides language learning, such as paying the rent, eating, drinking, sleeping, and loving.

This mistake is easy to make, however, for the only time the language teacher normally comes in contact with the language learner is in the classroom. Therefore, the language teacher tends to see the students only in their role as language learners, and, of course, a language barrier between the teacher and the students does nothing to break down this misconception.

Also, the language teacher most likely has committed his life to language teaching whereas most language students want to get over with the tortuous task of learning a foreign language as quickly, and with as little effort, as possible. This difference of perspective should be kept in mind.

In conclusion, let me reiterate that I think that more emphasis should be placed in the future on studying language learning from the student's point of view rather than merely from the teacher's point of view. I hope that this article will serve that end.

THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH TO SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES

By Gina Cantoni Harvey
Northern Arizona University
Chair, Committee on Schools & University Coordination

School systems serving students of limited English proficiency must now comply with federal laws by implementing one of several possible models of bilingual instruction in the elementary grades; at the secondary level, however, a school may adopt an ESL program as an acceptable alternative to bilingual education, unless the local state law requires the bilingual approach for both elementary and secondary grades. Since English is an essential component of instruction in both the bilingual and the second-language approach, it is appropriate to ask who will be responsible for teaching it, and what steps can be taken to insure that the task is assigned to an adequately prepared professional.

Usually the bilingual teacher will be expected to teach both in English and in the students' native language. It is hoped, but cannot be taken for granted, that in teaching English the bilingual teacher will follow an appropriate second-language approach instead of relying exclusively on materials and methods suitable for native speakers of the language. However, not all bilingual teachers have had training in second-language pedagogy; not all universities include ESL methodology in their requirements for a degree in bilingual education.

In some schools bilingual classes are taught by a team consisting of a bilingual teacher, responsible for instruction in the students' native language, and an English teacher responsible for instruction in English. This approach provides a viable solution to the need for bilingual education in schools where there is a scarcity of certified bilingual personnel, as it frees the bilingual teacher to provide instruction in the students' native language to more than one class. It is again hoped, but not taken for granted, that the team teacher responsible for instruction in English will not be just a traditional Language Arts or English teacher but a trained teacher of ESL.

Obviously the need for special training in teaching English to non-native speakers applies to persons teaching in secondary schools that comply with federal legislation by means of an ESL program. Some skills in implementing ESL methodology are needed by any teachers, bilingual or monolingual, whose classroom includes even one child unable to function in the language used as the medium of instruction, for example, a language arts teacher in a regular classroom including a Korean and a Navajo of limited English ability, or a bilingual teacher in a Spanish/English program whose class includes one Chinese student.

Although teachers of both ESL and EFL may be trained in the same program and attend the same linguistic courses, the prospective clientele of each of the two groups is different and can be better served through a differentiation of approaches. As opposed to the learner of English abroad, for whom the teacher and textbook may be the only contacts with English language and culture, the child of limited English proficiency attending a U.S. school is exposed to a variety of sources of reinforcement of his English skills through the mass media, school and social activities, and his English-speaking peers; the effective ESL teacher will know how to take advantage of this valuable input.

Having identified several categories of teachers as responsible for teaching English to non-English speakers, it is appropriate to discuss how they can best be prepared to meet this responsibility. In other words, what concepts, skills and attitudes do they need in addition to those acquired during their professional preparation either as elementary Language Arts teachers or as high school English teachers? Is it possible for a regular classroom teacher to become an effective teacher of the ESL students in his or her class without the expenditure of time, money and effort required to become a specialist? These are complex issues, especially if we consider not only the differences among the teachers to be trained (in terms of background, experience, attitudes, etc.) but the even greater differences among the ESL learners who will ultimately be affected (in terms of age, ethnic origin, expectations, etc.). This brief paper can only touch upon such issues with a few comments, focusing on three points:

The fine distinction between teaching English to native and non-native speakers.

The problems of accountability.

Some insights from recent research on how languages are acquired and learned.

Some English or Language Arts teachers, untrained in ESL, who have suddenly found themselves in charge of students with little or no English proficiency have been known to proceed with the regular curriculum, using textbooks designed for native speakers of English and probably faulting the students for their inability to keep up. With the current emphasis on individualized instruction such cases are less frequent now than in earlier days, but even today some teachers may attempt to meet the students at their own levels by using materials that are too juvenile and reducing the conceptual—not the linguistic—load. Others may recognize the existence of a linguistic barrier but proceed on the assumption that anyone who is a native speaker of a language can teach it to others in a "natural" way, as parents teach their children. Since the students are not infants, this natural approach is only partially effective part of the time; it is not efficient enough in leading the students to academic success. An understanding of the nature of language and how it is learned and of possible ESL approaches would instead help the teacher in assessing the approximate level of English proficiency (if any) of each ESL learner and in selecting appropriate activities for further developing his or her command of it.

The ESL teacher should emphasize comprehension before expecting production, should approach reading as a language-based activity, should encourage creativity rather than rote learning, should not insist on correctness at the expense of fluency. The teacher should also avoid downgrading the child's own language and culture, presenting English and the mainstream way of life as alternatives available and appropriate in given situations. Most of these recommendations apply to a student-centered approach in a modern classroom, not just to the teaching of English to non-native speakers. Are the recommendations then sufficient to insure that any teacher who follows them can teach ESL? Only to a certain extent; the specific implementation has to do with the language barrier which (along with possible psychological and cultural ones) separates the student from academic success. Effective implementation of an ESL approach requires an understanding of the nature of the barrier and familiarity with proven ways of breaking through. Good intentions are not enough. For example, the teacher should be able to detect discrepancies between the material presented in a textbook and the needs of the ESL learner; an exercise on the proper use of "a" and "an" is premature for a child who does not use articles with any degree of correctness, leaving them out altogether or using the definite instead of the indefinite or vice-versa.

It is clear from the above comments that the proper attitudes of acceptance, respect and patience are not sufficient to insure effective ESL instruction. The public and the school administration demand results; they must be observable and measurable. The emphasis on behaviorally stated objectives has shifted the focus of instruction from the teacher to the learner; after a given lesson will the latter be able to do something that he couldn't do before? Focusing on the learner is not only appropriate but necessary; what the teacher does should produce change and growth in individual students. However, it is difficult to iden-

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tify the nature and extent of this growth, let alone find isolated small tangible and yet valid bits of evidence to prove it; a "laundry list" of discrete performance items is inadequate to deal with the complexity of language learning. Moreover, the requirement that a properly stated behavioral objective include a precisely defined stimulus (ex: when asked to choose the correct answer from three written alternatives . . . , etc.) gets in the way of a less formal, more global assessment of language used in a creative, spontaneous, meaningful way. At present it is still impossible to determine exactly what students must know, learn and do in order to learn a language; therefore we can only offer tentative suggestions about the competencies and skills that teachers need in order to facilitate the learning. Competency Based Teacher Education does not provide us with the long-awaited treasure map to effective training of language teachers; nor does teacher accountability necessarily result in teacher effectiveness, although most teachers learn to cope with it.

ESL teachers in U.S. elementary and secondary schools acquire their training from a variety of formal and informal pre-service and in-service sources such as workshops, conferences, publications, and university courses and programs. Some training sessions yield to the demand for the practical, "hands-on" approach, leaving the teachers with an eclectic collection of activities but without a framework for using them constructively. On the other hand, the emphasis on theoretical concerns may ignore the issue of classroom applicability. Because of individual differences some teachers will be more receptive to one kind of approach or to the other, or perhaps to a combination of both; feedback from them can provide valuable information for designing more effective training sessions. In general, university degree-oriented programs and courses tend to have a strong linguistic component; their graduates are specialists representing only a fraction of the teachers who work with non-native speakers of English. For the many teachers who simply want some guidelines on how to better reach the ESL learners in their classes an emphasis on linguistics may be a deterrent. They may have other priorities, or they may be disenchanted with the conflicting claims and confusing terminology of various modern grammars and resentful of the faddish changes in textbooks and curricula that capitalize on the word "linguistic."

In view of the limited amount of time available for training ESL teachers it is reasonable to re-examine the question of how much background linguistic information the teacher really needs, and of what kind. Linguistics is a growing discipline in which today's discovery is tomorrow's reject; teachers cannot be expected to keep up with the latest theories and figure out their relevance and applicability. On the other hand most linguists, even applied linguists, know little about what goes on in a classroom, and are seldom willing or able to relate their findings to useful classroom activities.

Perhaps a better balance between theory and practice in the training of ESL teachers may be achieved by returning the focus to the learner (instead of the language or the teacher) but not in a behavioristic sense. A body of recent research (Krashen, Schumann, and others) has provided us with interesting insights on how second languages are learned or acquired. The concept of "intake," a term first used by Corder (1967) is the key to this model. In order to learn a language a learner must be exposed to it and able to make sense of it, at least partially. The conversations or language activities in which the learner participates at a given time constitute the language "input" available to him; the "intake" represents the portion of available "input" which the learner understands and acquires. There is seldom a perfect match between "intake" and "input"; the most useful input is slightly challenging to the learner but not too difficult. The teacher's responsibility consists of preparing an environment that encourages communication and meaningful language activities. The experience should be pleasant, the focus on meaning rather than grammar.

Teachers usually like to do this sort of thing and do it well; it is not too different from oral language activities that facilitate reading comprehension and creative writing in the regular classroom. The training of teachers or teachers-to-be who are already effective in promoting first language development to become facilitators of second-language acquisition would further refine skills already developed, and add others such as the ability to recognize and handle affective factors impeding the acquisition and especially the ability to select interesting language input at the appropriate level of difficult, which is determined by many factors besides linguistic ones. Student-to-student and small-group interaction activities involving English-speaking peers can result in excellent "intake" for the ESL learner in spite of the fact that the peers who provide the "input" have no formal training in estimating levels of difficulty; they can usually develop some "ad hoc" strategies to insure that they are being understood.

The difference between a Language Arts or English teacher and a teacher of English as a Second Language acting as facilitator of second-language acquisition is one of degree, not of kind; the same person can perform both roles in the same classroom. There is still a place in our schools for the highly trained ESL specialist with linguistic background which is not incompatible with an understanding of how languages can be acquired as well as taught. But it seems that in view of the large numbers of students entering our schools with limited English proficiency the training of teachers as facilitators of English acquisition seems a promising and feasible alternative to either setting unrealistic demands for additional specialization or ignoring the needs of students who have to overcome a language barrier.

PEER-TUTORING ACTIVITIES FOR THE ESL CLASSROOM

by **Alice C. Pack and Deborah Dillon**
Brigham Young University
—Hawaii Campus

Certain frustrations are shared by nearly all classroom teachers as they try to meet the individual needs of their students. In addition to unwieldy class size, the difficulties posed by student inattention, dissimilar needs and capacities, and lack of motivation constitute all-too-familiar obstacles to effective learning. Peer-tutoring techniques were developed in response to these concerns and, we believe, can be of great help in dealing with them. Student response to a variety of peer-tutoring activities has been encouraging in terms of both sustained interest and improved performance. In this article we will explain why these techniques work and present examples of peer-tutoring activities we have used.

Peer tutoring typically involves a pair of students (ideally of different language backgrounds) who alternately assume the roles of tutor and learner. Interaction is more or less structured according to student needs and the nature of the materials being used. Paired students work at their own speed and rely on one another for constant feedback. Peer tutoring thereby implies a new role for the classroom teacher—one in which the principal function is that of a consultant, and in which contact with students is brief, but frequent and individual.

The effectiveness of peer tutoring depends on numerous factors. The constant involvement of all the students in the class requires that they be alert and thinking at all times. The fact that students are paired gives each more personal attention and feedback than a single teacher could ever provide. Moreover, it permits a teacher to match students of similar levels and complementary capabilities. In this way, the variety of strengths and weaknesses which students bring with them to a class can facilitate rather than impede learning. As students realize that they know things which can be of use to others, a close camaraderie develops among members of the class. An increased sense of common purpose and the habit of responsible participation in the learning process are developed at the same time. This, in turn, encourages individual initiative and reduces the danger of unproductive dependence on the teacher.

Two sets of materials to be used specifically for peer tutoring have been developed at the Hawaii campus of Brigham Young University. We rely heavily on both in our English Language Institute program. One is a set of three books (*Dyads: Prepositions, Dyads: Pronouns and Determiners* and *Dyads: Verb Choices and Verb Forms*) written by Alice C. Pack (Newbury House, 1977). The other is a set of pronunciation cards by Lynn E. Henrichsen (to be published). Each of these sets of materials is discussed below.

DYADS

An analysis of errors drawn from ESL students' compositions led to the identification of three broad types of grammatical difficulty. Each of these categories is treated in a separate volume of the Dyad series, whose purpose is to help students internalize grammatical structures through repeated exposure to sentences requiring clozure.

Texts have two components—one without answers ("student" copy) and one with answers ("tutor" copy)—and students work in pairs. The steps consist of a series of unconnected sentences with fifteen clozure blanks in each section. For each blank, students select one from a group of two to six potentially confusing items. (Review sections have unlimited choices.) The "student" (or respondent) reads each sentence aloud, indicating clozure by filling the blank or blanks with the correct word or words indicated by the context of the sentence. The "tutor," whose book has the correct clozure items listed, reinforces the respondent's clozure selection when the sentence is read by saying "mmhmm" with rising intonation if the item is correct, and "mm-mm" with falling intonation if the item is incorrect. If the clozure item is incorrect, the respondent again reads the sentence with another selected clozure item. Students alternate as respondent and tutor in each dyad after a respondent has read all of the sentences in one section.

Because the answers present little or no ambiguity and the program is highly structured, the *Dyads* work equally well in classrooms and in situations where a teacher is not present, such as in a language lab. These texts are very effective for teaching discrete grammar points and are particularly well suited to speaking and writing classes. Teachers can also use the dyad model in constructing additional exercises to meet the specific needs of their own students.

PRONUNCIATION CARDS

The peer-tutoring approach was also used in an activity designed to allow students to focus on individual pronunciation problems which might not be shared by the rest of the class. The activity, in a game format, uses sets of cards, each set containing two yellow cards and twenty orange cards. Each set presents two members of a targeted minimal pair distinction (e.g. pill/bill) in a sentence content. On each of the cards is a pictorial representation of one of the minimal pair sentences. The sentences on the two yellow cards differ only in the substitution of one minimal pair member for the other.

Students work in pairs (of different language backgrounds whenever possible) and proceed as outlined below: (S = speaker, L = listener)

preparation:

- —students sit facing one another
- —S holds shuffled orange cards so S can see them but L cannot
- —L puts yellow cards on table so both S and L can see them

method:

- —S reads sentence which corresponds to picture on top orange card
- —L points to yellow card which illustrates the sentence he heard
- —if L points to correct card S gives L the top orange card
- —if L points to incorrect card, S puts top orange card back into pile

Students continue until all cards are gone, change roles and record completed sets on a chart. While students are working the teacher circulates among them, monitoring progress and giving individual help.

In working with the pronunication cards students often discover that they really do have problems with speaking and hearing specific sounds. They develop an awareness of the importance of individual sounds in effective communication. The game requires accuracy on the part of both listener and speaker, for a mistake made by either can halt progress. When two students cannot agree if a mistake was the listener's or the speaker's, the teacher is called upon to arbitrate. The use of these cards invariably generates a great deal of energy and enthusiasm as students help each other produce and recognize phonemic distinctions. Here, too, it is pos-

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sible for teachers to make their own cards (with or without pictures) depending on their students' needs. For a more detailed discussion of the cards see Henrichsen (1978).

Materials specifically designed for peer tutoring have been discussed up to this point. The peer-tutoring approach can also be successfully applied to already familiar activities, e.g. checking reading exercises, editing homework, proofreading essays, and giving speeches. Examples of each follow.

CHECKING READING HOMEWORK

Since reading is a silent activity, it is sometimes difficult for a teacher to determine whether any thinking is actually taking place while a student is reading. For this reason, most textbooks designed to teach reading provide a set of comprehension questions to ensure that students have actually understood the passage. Unfortunately, however, such questions can often be answered correctly with little or no thought.

A peer-tutoring reading check helps students think while they read. After students have answered comprehension questions they gather in groups of two or three and compare their responses. When answers to any given question differ, each student must defend his own choice. As the students work, the teacher circulates among them, helping them find ways to support their arguments.

The reading check stimulates mental activity during and after reading. Students often give more careful thought to answers which they know they must later defend. As they learn to ask and answer their own questions while reading, they become more critical readers.

EDITING HOMEWORK

The moment a student hands in a homework assignment, motivation is at its peak. Having committed himself to certain answers, he is eager to find out if they are correct. In the traditional classroom situation, the teacher collects homework, checks it and returns it the following day, at best. By then, however, the student is concentrating on something else, so he barely glances at the corrections and he then proceeds to make the same errors on the next similar assignment. A very precious moment has been wasted and, as a result, the student continues to make the same errors and the teacher continues to correct them.

A peer-tutoring homework check is very simple. The procedures are similar to those in a reading check. In groups of two or three, students compare answers to written homework assignments and defend their own when differences are found. Again, the teacher circulates among the students, answering specific questions and mediating unresolved disputes.

The homework check takes advantage of the fact that a student's interest in an assignment is greatest at the time he hands it in to be corrected. It is at that point that he wants most to know whether or not his answers are correct. Students find that a few minutes' consultation with a peer provides them with the opportunity to check areas about which they are uncertain. Editing homework helps students and teacher break the vicious circle of repeated errors and corrections.

PROOFREADING ESSAYS

Most native speakers proofread their grammar as they write, and most good writers proofread a series of drafts before they are satisfied with the finished product. ESL teachers, however, often encourage proofreading only by reminding students to write a rough draft and then correct mistakes. Yet error correction in a second language can be a monumental task. In teaching proofreading we have learned two very important things from our students: 1) it is extremely difficult for them to find their own errors and 2) they cannot check everything at once. Therefore, until students have learned some techniques of proofreading, it does little good to ask them to correct their errors.

The first time students proofread they should look for only one or two types of errors. As they gain experience, knowledge and confidence, they can handle many more. When peer tutoring is used to help teach proofreading in one of our intermediate level classes (where verbs, prepositions, and word forms have already been studied) the following procedure is used:

1) One student reads his paragraph slowly to his partner.
2) Both students look for mistakes in spelling and punctuation.
3) Either student stops reading any time he thinks he spots an error. The error is discussed, a mutual decision is reached (perhaps to save the question for the teacher) and the students continue reading.
4) Students repeat steps 1-3 looking for verb errors (S-V agreement, verb time agreement, forms).
5) Students repeat steps 1-3 looking at prepositions.
6) Students repeat steps 1-3 looking at word forms.
7) Students repeat steps 1-3 looking at anything else that does not look or sound correct.

We find that teaching students to recognize and correct the errors in their own and their classmates' essays encourages them to avoid such mistakes in all their writing.

GIVING SPEECHES

Assigning students to give speeches in front of a class is a familiar activity in speaking classes. While a student nervously stumbles through his speech, his classmates often have their minds elsewhere. They are worrying about their own speeches or perhaps wondering what they will have for lunch. The teacher gives the student a grade and the student returns to his seat. Little, if any, communication has taken place between the speaker and his audience.

A peer-tutoring approach to such speeches provides for constant interaction between speaker and audience. The promise of a quiz on the following day gives the audience an immediate reason for being attentive. When they do not understand something the speaker has said, they are encouraged to interrupt and ask for repetition or clarification.

This more informal approach to giving speeches in the classroom benefits the speaker in that continual feedback from his fellow students permits him to know exactly when he is and when he is not communicating. Thus, he can monitor his own performance and regulate his behavior accordingly. This approach is equally valuable to students in the audience, who soon learn that listening is not a passive activity. By taking notes they learn to extract and organize important information in a speech, and at the same time overcome their reluctance to ask questions the answers to which are necessary to their understanding. Both speakers and audience come to know the considerable confusion that can be caused by inaccurate pronunciation or inappropriate grammatical construction. Indeed, students seem more apt to learn from one another than from a teacher the crucial value of making themselves intelligible.

The possibilities for using peer tutoring are endless and we have found it to be adaptable to nearly any class setting, and subject and any set of materials. There is ample evidence in journals and other publications that many other teachers are discovering and enjoying the many benefits of peer-tutoring procedures in teaching reading (Dykstra 1970; Ford 1977), writing (Kohn and Vajda 1975; Witbeck 1976) and in speaking and listening activities such as map-reading (Winn-Bell Olsen

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tify the nature and extent of this growth, let alone find isolated small tangible and yet valid bits of evidence to prove it; a "laundry list" of discrete performance items is inadequate to deal with the complexity of language learning. Moreover, the requirement that a properly stated behavioral objective include a precisely defined stimulus (ex: when asked to choose the correct answer from three written alternatives . . . , etc.) gets in the way of a less formal, more global assessment of language used in a creative, spontaneous, meaningful way. At present it is still impossible to determine exactly what students must know, learn and do in order to learn a language; therefore we can only offer tentative suggestions about the competencies and skills that teachers need in order to facilitate the learning. Competency Based Teacher Education does not provide us with the long-awaited treasure map to effective training of language teachers; nor does teacher accountability necessarily result in teacher effectiveness, although most teachers learn to cope with it.

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ESL AND COMPOSITION: A REPORT

by **Bill Powell**
University of North Florida

A principal benefit in being a member of NAFSA (the National Association for Foreign Student Affairs) is taking part in the various workshops, conferences, and conventions which the organization offers each year. The content of such meetings is interwoven with valuable contacts to provide not only an overview of international education but also insight into specific professional interests. At the Region VII Annual Conference in Knoxville (October 17-19, 1979), the ATESL (Association of Teachers of English as a Second Language) Sectional Meeting on "Teaching Composition" afforded ATESLers the opportunity to broaden their approach to that subtle skill. Chaired by John Rogers of the University of Miami, the meeting included four presenters who discussed a variety of topics concerning the instruction of composition.

Dale Myers of the University of Tennessee at Knoxville spoke first on the relevance of the conference theme (Professionalism in International Education) to composition. Dr. Myers proposed a number of responsibilities which composition teachers should address to enhance the learning of their students. First of all, the instructor should be thoroughly acquainted with research and materials in the field of composition pertaining to both non-native learners and to native learners. In being familiar with the materials available, the instructor has a broad range from which to choose primary as well as secondary materials; in being familiar with native as well as non-native research, the instructor is further armed to assist students in their preparation to write in an English-speaking world. Familiarity with the field allows the teacher to supplement or replace, adapt or modify, develop and experiment in order to gear composition to the needs of the student. It becomes the instructor's duty to experiment with a variety of techniques to find those compositional exercises which best suit the development of composition. Having made the selection of materials and techniques, the composition teacher should provide the opportunity for practice, since it is through practice that students acquire the ability to write. Myers encourages composition teachers to avoid "sentence-level panic" and teach composition, not grammar. It is important to keep the notion of rhetoric as the primary focus of a composition class, avoiding emphasis on isolated sentence exercises. The teacher should be aware of his own students' composition needs in terms of their academic futures and their current outside interests in order to relate their work in composition class to their own lives and to their future needs. The realization of application affects the students' interest in writing; the realization of applicable preparation affects attitudes of university departments towards the relevance of an ESL program.

Virginia Pritchard shared some ideas on composition from the ESL program at North Carolina State University, where the operating philosophy is that ESL students should be taught composition survival skills. Since the ESL classes serve as preparation for the regular English program, a major stumbling block for non-native students, the students need to acquire abilities in essay writing and research if they are to endure the academic demands in the university. In many instances, Dr. Pritchard finds, ESL students do not have a complete knowledge of their own grammar, thereby necessitating the teaching of grammar concepts.

At North Carolina State composition classes are writing labs, with corrective exercises given as homework. Each student's papers are kept in a folder at school so that they can be referred to in frequent conferences with the composition teacher. Students also keep journals in which they are encouraged to write. Though ungraded, these journals are reviewed periodically by the instructor—a time-consuming process—but one that reveals the emergence of improving writing.

A handout of a selected student's written first impressions of the U.S. demonstrated two things: the glimmering of understanding of an expressive mind and the problem of all composition teachers, corrections. Pritchard suggested the use of the guidelines proposed by Wilga Rivers and Mary Temperly in *A Practical Guide to the Teaching of English as a Second Language* (Oxford University Press, 1978; pp. 323-4). These guidelines encourage, among other things, that students learn to write compositions by writing them, that corrective focus should be narrowed to a few major faults, and that active correction on the part of the student achieves better learning than the passive reading of corrections marked by a teacher (Rivers and Temperly offer a number of "active correction processes"). For scoring composition, Pritchard explained the system used at the Summer Institute in English at N.C.S.U.:

Guide in Scoring Written Compositions

Assign one mark from each of the two sections below. Add the two and multiply this "raw score" by 4.

I. Organization, length, content

15 An interesting and substantial thesis, within a clear structure (introduction, good development, conclusion) and at an appropriate length.
13 Adequate development of relatively interesting and complex ideas. Clear, coherent.
11 Weak development of routine thought, but does stick to the topic.
9 Little organization beyond sentence level.
7 No apparent organization. Doesn't stick to the topic.
5 A jumble. Practically unintelligible.
3 Uninterpretable.

II. Grammar, vocabulary, spelling

10 Excellent, near native.
8 Moderately complex grammar and diction, with occasional errors.
6 Grammar occasionally obscures meaning. Vocabulary limited to common words. Frequent misspellings.
4 Only phrases and fragments are correct. Uses only very basic vocabulary. Rampant misspellings.
2 Shows no sense of the mechanics of English.

Mike Pyle of the English Language Institute at the University of Florida gave a presentation entitled "Enhancing Style in Composition with 'Relativization.'" Mr. Pyle proposed that a workable knowledge of the sentence combination and reduction functions of relative clauses will improve the style of ESL students. Since ESL students will be evaluated by the same criteria as English-speaking students in their university-level written work, it is important that they be equipped with some adeptness in the stylistic conventions pertaining to relative clauses.

The basic structure and use of relative clauses should be taught in grammar class, Pyle stressed. However, effective sentence combination through "relativization" has valuable stylistic utility for the composition class. For example, relative clauses can be wielded to affect sentence length, eliminate verbiage and present definitions. Similarly, ESL students should be aware of the application of relative clause reduction in order to decrease ambiguity and heaviness. Pyle pointed out these constructions lending themselves to the reduction of the relative clause (example sentences are this writer's):

"Passivization": The film (which was) shown yesterday is being offered again today.

Before prepositional phrase: The theater (which is) in Building 4 can get crowded.

Before noun phrase The film, (which is) a cinematic masterpiece, won three awards in Cannes.

After verb BE in progressive: The actor (who is) playing the lead was also nominated.

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ESL AND COMPOSITION

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Before adjectives (requires transformation): The film, (which is) long, will be shown in two parts.

Pyle also discussed the methods of avoiding "over-relativization" such as breaking up the sentence, using participial constructions and using relative adverbs. He then demonstrated with model sentences how stylistic ineffectiveness can be corrected through "relativization" or reduction.

Clint Wright of Georgia State University gave an interesting presentation on a variety of game-playing techniques which he uses to emphasize the formal nature of the paragraph. Mr. Wright followed the theme of the other presentations in stressing that it is paragraph structure which should be taught in the composition class; grammar, with its infinite problems, should not be tackled.

Wright employs several exercises to give students practice in developing paragraphs with topic and supporting sentences. In one exercise, students choose topic sentences from a list of paragraphs without topic sentences. From this exercise, they proceed to developing their own topic sentences for "deficient" paragraphs without the provision of a list. Wright employs "the round-robin paragraph" to aid students in writing paragraphs with supporting sentences. Groups of four students with a "leader" decide on a subject of universal interest. The leader writes the topic sentence, and then the second student writes a supporting sentence. The writing of supporting sentences continues in the group until the paragraph is completed. Wright has found that students are forced to read the coherence of the developing paragraph as the exercise proceeds. The group-produced paragraphs can be reproduced, distributed, and analyzed constructively by the class as a whole.

To deal with the problem of lack of detail in student compositions, Wright has students underline the vaguest generalities of a model paragraph: For example:

> Spring is the best season of the year. There are many activities you can do. Also, the weather changes and becomes more pleasant. The scenery becomes more beautiful. People seem nicer in the spring. Finally, spring has been called the season of love.

Next, students should break the paragraph up by adding appropriate details. With practice in becoming more concrete in their composition, Wright asserts, students can be led away from the "blank-paper syndrome."

Another intriguing exercise utilized by Wright is the "induced conclusion," in which students are provided with a list of general conclusions. For each conclusion, they are to write several sentences containing specific examples which will lead other readers to draw the same conclusion. Played as a game, this exercise has students attempting to match the conclusions with sentences written by other students. Wright thinks that game-playing exercises of this type have students work with concepts while maintaining their interest level.

OBTAINING TEACHING MATERIALS

by **Bernard Susser**
Baika Junior College

This is a preliminary guide to obtaining ESOL teaching materials including textbooks and supplementary materials. It will probably be of most interest to teachers working outside the United States but I have tried to include something for everyone. It should not be (but it is) necessary to add that mention of any commercial organization herein does not constitute an endorsement but is provided solely for the information of readers who must, as usual, proceed at their own risk.

1. Publishers' Local Offices. Many of the major American and British ESL/EFL publishers have local offices throughout the world which often provide examination copies and other services for teachers. But if the local office is stingy with examination copies or will not provide a professional discount on trade books, it may be possible to obtain these benefits directly from the main office. Addresses of publishers are listed in *Books in Print* or *British Books in Print* which can be found in some large bookstores, university libraries or British Council/American Culture Center libraries.

2. International Booksellers. There are several bookstores in England that offer overseas service. Blackwells (Broad Street, Oxford, England) and W. Heffer & Sons (20 Trinity Street, Cambridge CB2 3NG, England) are leading international bookstores specializing in academic books; they issue catalogues in many fields, including language and linguistics. Gullivers Bookshop (49 High Street, Wimborne, Dorset BH21 1HS, England) provides international service for textbooks, tapes and other ESL/EFL books and materials.

3. Instructional Materials. Companies listed here handle supplementary teaching materials such as games, posters, tapes, slides, etc.; most have excellent catalogues and will ship overseas. Although comparatively few materials are made for TESOL, teachers can easily adapt materials made for native-speaking students in such areas as language development, reading readiness, phonics and aural comprehension.

C.C. Publications, Inc., P.O. Box 372-T, Gladstone, OR 97027, picture cards.

Constructive Playthings, 1040 East 85th Street, Kansas City, MO 64131, general instructional materials.

Cuisenaire Company of America, Inc., 12 Church Street, New Rochelle, NY 10805, cuisenaire rods.

Developmental Learning Materials, 7440 Natchez Avenue, Niles, IL 60648, games and visual aids; has several overseas offices.

Dormac, Inc., P.O. Box 752, Beaverton, OR 97075, special education materials for language.

emi, P.O. Box 4272, Madison, WI 53711, games and simulations.

Ideal School Supply Company, International Division, 6655 N. Avondale Avenue, Chicago, IL 60631, general instructional materials.

Lakeshore Curriculum Materials Company, 2695 E. Dominguez Street, P.O. Box 6261, Carson, CA 90749, general instructional materials.

Learning World, Inc., 500 Westlake Avenue North, Seattle, WA 98109, general instructional materials.

The Perfection Form Company, 1000 North Second Avenue, Logan, IA 51546, AV materials, books.

SVE Society for Visual Education, Inc., 1345 Diversey Parkway, Chicago, IL 60614, filmstrips and other audiovisual materials.

Word Making Productions, 70 West Louise Avenue, Salt Lake City, UT 84115, word cards and games.

4. Pro Forma Invoices. One good way to order from overseas is to send a list of the items you want and request that you be sent a pro forma invoice which includes all postage and other charges. Then you can return one copy of that invoice with your payment, or if you decide not to order, you can tear up the invoice with no obligation.

5. Local Sources of AV Materials. Many British and American films are available in 16mm from commercial film rental companies. The British Councils, British Tourist Authority offices, American Culture Centers and similar agencies around the world are a valuable source of films, tapes and records. United Nations Information Centers and some international airlines provide English language publicity films for use in schools. Of course the availability of these materials will vary greatly from country to country.

Anyone with suggestions for improving this list or reproving the author is invited to write me c/o the *Newsletter* or directly (English Department, Baika Junior College, Shukunoshō 2-19-5, Ibaraki-shi, Osaka 567, Japan).

IT WORKS

Edited by Darlene Larson
New York University

For Some Sparkling Conversation . . .

(We are pleased to be able to present ideas from three different teachers in this issue, all focused on conversation in ESL classes. We regret that space does not permit us to print the authors' comments in full.)

ANN LARSON of the Intensive English Language Institute, S.U.N.Y. at Buffalo has written to describe the role and function of conversation groups in that program. She writes:

Although volunteers from the community could certainly be used, the leaders of the conversation groups at the Institute are generally university students fulfilling requirements for academic credit by completing a list of readings and a term paper on intercultural communication. A part-time coordinator from the Institute's staff organizes the program, trains the leaders, and deals with any problems that arise. Training of the leader is on both practical and theoretical levels: he not only is provided with working advice, but also is introduced to sociolinguistic theory as a basis for understanding the complexities of intercultural communication. With this background, he is better equipped to deal sensitively with students from a variety of cultures and to take an active part in developing their communicative competence. Channels of communication between the coordinator and conversation leader are kept open: the coordinator holds weekly resource hours and monthly meetings for leaders to discuss occasional communicative or interpersonal problems that arise, to obtain advice for improving group interactions, and to exchange ideas on effective techniques for initiating conversation.

An imaginative group leader can find a diversity of ways to keep the conversation meetings from becoming locked into a routine. During the last semester conversation groups undertook a variety of explorations: some groups went to the zoo; others visited restaurants; some went on sight-seeing expeditions. All of these experiences not only helped to lessen barriers between the group members but also helped the foreign students to develop the sociolinguistic skills which varied situations call for. The typical meeting, however, took place on campus and consisted of the type of informal and unplanned conversations that friends generally share with one another. The group leaders are instructed to deal with cultural explanation and cultural comparison whenever possible, but they do not generally approach the meeting with a fixed list of subjects in mind; instead, they let conversation develop spontaneously.

The small size and informality of the conversation group are well suited to developing communicative abilities. The student not only has much more opportunity to speak than s/he would have in a classroom of fifteen to twenty students, but s/he feels less inhibited and more willing to experiment, using his or her limited linguistic knowledge to its fullest potential. In a small group the student develops an adventurous attitude toward the language. He or she learns to communicate meaning by whatever means are at hand, combining constructions to create new utterances, and, when necessary, supplementing words with gestures. As the student becomes accustomed to relying on his or her resources rather than on the support and feedback of a teacher, he or she gradually loses inhibitions felt toward using the language for the purposes of uncontrolled, spontaneous interaction.

Conversation groups are ideal for developing sociolinguistic competence. Language use is not artificially controlled as it often must be within the constraints of formal instruction; in the conversation group, the student has regular practice interacting in real communicative situations using the language for common social purposes such as developing relationships, giving information, and expressing opinions.[1] Group meetings occurring off campus provide the student with skill in dealing appropriately with a variety of situations. His/her greatest development, however, is in the realm of informal social interaction with a peer. Through associating with the leader over a period of time, the students gain a general awareness of culturally determined values and expectations characteristic of Americans their own age. By trial and error, they gradually learn to communicate in a culturally appropriate manner as they determine through the leader's verbal as well as non-verbal responses whether they have successfully conveyed intended meaning. The students especially benefit when the leader assumes the role of cultural interpreter and guides conversation to direct cultural explanation and comparison. With the growing ability to interpret cultural phenomena, the students are able to re-evaluate and improve upon communicative interactions with the native speaker throughout their stay in the United States. Furthermore, they gain perspective on their academic studies: they are better prepared to understand ideas presented in the university classroom with a knowledge of their larger cultural context.

The American leaders also benefit in that they are able to form friendships with members of other cultures, develop leadership abilities, and improve skills in interpersonal relations. Through direct inter-cultural contact, they expand their educational experience, gaining cultural perspective on their field of study. Future ESL instructors especially benefit: they are introduced to the cultural variations they will encounter in the classroom, and are able to develop the cultural awareness and sensitivity so important in good foreign language instruction.

For all these varied reasons it has been the experience of the Institute over a number of years that conversation groups should form an integral part of any program that seriously intends to instruct foreign students in the use of the English language.

SUSAN CORBACIOGLU writes of the importance and necessity of discussing topics found in a "University Survey" course. The purpose of such a course is to familiarize students with the procedures and resources of a specific university. In addition to the necessity of learning of "course responsibilities, testing and evaluation, and university resources," Corbacioglu points to the newcomers' additional interests in the whole system of higher education in the United States.

Students from other cultures often need to be made aware of the expectations of students and instructors in a college classroom. "Some foreign students are not accustomed to class participation, let alone expressing controversial personal opinions in class. In many cases, such behavior is expected and oftentimes considered in the evaluation of student performance."

"The ESL teacher will presumably hold his or her own office hours and encourage (or require) students to come in regularly. S/he should strongly recommend that the students keep track of the office hours and phone numbers of other instructors. The natural reluctance to speak with a professor in a language in which one is not confident is a primary obstacle for these students." Cultural understandings which teach students never to ask for help can add to this problem and making these topics for discussion in the conversation groups can go a long way in acquainting students with the underlying assumptions and unstated expectations of their new surroundings.

When testing and evaluation practices are being discussed, Corbacioglu recommends first developing an awareness of other fundamental questions such as:

1. What is the attendance policy and what is the rationale for it?
2. What are the criteria for grading and evaluation?

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[1] Wilga Rivers, "Talking Off the Tops of Their Heads," *TESOL Quarterly* 6, no. 1 (March 1972), pp. 71-81.

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3. What is the examination schedule and the policy for make-up examinations?

She adds that "in-class cheating—its meaning and its consequences—should be discussed. And the concept of plagiarism as it is understood in higher education in the United States needs to be clarified."

"A large number of resources are available to students at an American University, including anything from student unions to counseling centers to campus police. The array of different services and their designations can be bewildering." Corbacioglu recommends that students be sent in pairs to interview people in these campus offices. Students will return with many topics and much information for sharing and discussion.

RONALD R. RODGERS of The Chun Nam Board of Education, in Kwang Ju City, Republic of Korea, writes about his use of cultural information in conversation classes. Two sources of cultural information which he recommends are superstitions and proverbs, though he adds that famous quotations could be another good source.

Many readers have used superstitions and proverbs successfully in language classes; most interesting language texts incorporate them in a variety of ways. But Rodgers has added a technique which may be useful in stimulating "real" communication, genuine information seeking and explanation. He reports:

I write a number of American superstitions separately on index cards. I give a card to each student, and make it clear that each of them has to give me a Korean superstition. After a student reads the superstition out loud, the students discuss it in English and try to come to terms with it, to understand it as best they can. At this point the compelling need to communicate makes itself evident. The esoteric cultural item demands discussion if there is to be any understanding at all. Often students have different ideas about it. They communicate these to each other, they may argue or agree and finally reach a conclusion. The less the teacher has to do with the text of the conversation the better.

The student who read the card must now give me a Korean superstition, translated of course into English. My normal response is usually, "What does that mean?" Discussion then follows in trying to explain to me, the teacher, what it means. The clamour to explain, the compelling need to communicate is acutely obvious. There is something here that simply does not exist in contrived conversational situations. When we do finally come to terms with it we begin the process all over again.

A few of the superstitions and proverbs that have worked well for Rodgers are:

Superstitions

The number 13 is an unlucky number.
Friday the 13th is an unlucky day.
If a black cat crosses your path you'll have bad luck.
Walking under ladders will bring you bad luck.
A four-leaf clover will bring you good luck.
If your palm itches someone is going to give you money.
If your nose itches you are going to kiss a fool.
After spilling salt, to avoid having bad luck, you must pick it up with your left hand and throw it over your left shoulder.
A bride must wear something old, something new, something borrowed, something blue.
If your ears ring, someone is talking about you.

Proverbs

Nothing ventured, nothing gained.
Actions speak louder than words.
Birds of a feather flock together.
One rotten apple spoils the barrel.
Too many cooks spoil the broth.
Two heads are better than one.
Close only counts in horseshoes.
Absence makes the heart grow fonder.
Familiarity breeds contempt.
The grass is always greener on the other side of the fence.
Where there's smoke there's fire.
A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.
No man is an island. ••

The *Tesol Newsletter* appreciates the generosity of these teachers who have shared their ideas that work.

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CURRENT TRENDS IN ESL INSTRUCTION

by Ruth Crymes

So much is going on these days in ESL instruction that, as a friend of mine once said, it foggles the mind. I am going to try to characterize the current trends in ESL instruction by discussing three anecdotes, three processes, and three instructional tasks. This is, however, no magical incantation. I just happen to have three anecdotes at hand. I have selected three processes to talk about partly because of time constraints and partly because these particular three, at this stage of our knowledge, seem to me to be ones that we can immediately take account of in our instructional tasks. I take the three instructional tasks from pedagogical tradition. All this will clear up, I trust, as I go along.

The anecdotes are actually anecdotal self-reports of second language learners. The first I will summarize. It is the self-report of an American who, in the course of his work, which includes travel to foreign countries, tries to learn enough of the language of each country, before he arrives there, to be understood and to understand what is said if it is said slowly.

Before a trip, his strategy is to spend 40 hours, an hour a day, by himself with a phrase book, studying primarily vocabulary, his aim being to master a basic vocabulary of about 500 words. He concentrates on those words that he will need to use in hotels and restaurants, words like *soap* and *towel* but not words like *closet* and *wall* and *floor*, words like *glass*, *knife*, *wine*, and *check*, but not the names of flowers or animals. He does not recommend his word choices to others—he only recommends that each learner make choices in terms of his or her particular communication needs.

He has a particular approach to learning verbs. He learns most of the ones that he learns only in their infinitive form. Of these, he learns to conjugate only six or seven of the most common, and one of these is always the word for *want*. Then he can say "I want to buy . . . ," "I want to order . . . ," "He wants to go . . ." and the only verb he has to conjugate is *want*. I should point out that his examples of languages that he has learned are Romance languages.

After 40 hours of such self-study he hires a foreign student as a tutor and spends a couple of hours a week with the tutor in simple conversation. He doesn't spend time with the tutor on drill. He does that later on his own time. The evening before he leaves on a trip he spends three hours with his tutor speaking only the tutor's language, and often departs for abroad with recommendations for restaurants that are off the tourist track.

He reports considerable success with his method. He uses whatever resources that he has available to him for communication. If he doesn't know how to say something one way he tries another that will get his meaning across. If he doesn't know how to say "I'm finished" he says "Enough" or "No more." (See Tarone 1977 for discussion of conscious communication strategies.) And though he sometimes gets himself into embarrassing situations, that doesn't bother him.

This language learner is Leonard Bernstein. He wrote about his method in an article which appeared in *House Beautiful* in 1974.

You will have noted the strong, integrative motivation, the specificity of the communication goal, the self-drill on the learner's own time and at his own pace, the attention to vocabulary, the deliberate strategy for simplifying the grammar, the willingness to try to use the language.

Let me present the report of the second language learner verbatim. This is what Margaret Mead said in 1964 in a discussion that followed the presentation of a paper at a conference on semiotics (189):

> I am not a good mimic and I have worked now in many different cultures. I am a very poor speaker of any language, but I always know whose pig is dead, and when I work in a native society, I know what people are talking about and I treat it seriously and I respect them, and this in itself establishes a great deal more rapport, very often, than the correct accent. I have worked with other field workers who were far, far better linguists than I, and the natives kept on saying they couldn't speak the language, although they said I could! Now, if you had a recording it would be proof positive I couldn't, but nobody knew it! You see, we don't need to teach people to speak like natives, you need to make the other people believe they can, so they can talk to them, and then they learn.

The particular points that I would call attention to here are, first, the way that Margaret Mead perceives successful communication as prior to "learning the language," in one sense of learning a language, and, second, the importance of shared knowledge and experience to the interpretation of meaning.

The last self-report I will also present verbatim. This is a Russian reporting on learning English as a second language. Unlike the first two learners, who report on adult language learning experience, he reports on his classroom experience as a child. He writes as follows:

> I learned to read English before I could read Russian. My first English friends were four simple souls in my grammar—Ben, Dan, Sam, and Ned. There used to be a great deal of fuss about their identities and whereabouts—"Who is Ben?" "He is Dan," "Sam

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is in bed," and so on. Although it all remained rather stiff and patchy (the compiler was handicapped by having to employ —for the initial lessons at least—words of not more than three letters), my imagination somehow managed to obtain the necessary data. Wan-faced, big-limbed, silent nitwits, proud in the possession of certain tools ("Ben has an axe"), they now drift with a slow-motioned slouch across the remotest backdrop of memory; and, akin to the mad alphabet of an optician's chart, the grammar book lettering looms again before me.

The writer is Vladimir Nabokov and the quotation is from his book *Speak Memory* (79-80).

Here I would call your attention to the human propensity, indeed the human craving, to make sense of language as communication, to assume context, to guess what it is if it is lacking. Language is a vehicle for conveying meaning and feelings. Language learners know that. Participants in communicative events interpret the sense of the language being used by drawing on their knowledge of how the language works in communication situations and on their knowledge of the world and their own life experiences. The young Nabokov had skimpy clues, but he had the imagination and the desire to infuse life into the textbook sentences. A bit later he goes on to say:

> On later pages longer words appeared; and at the very end of the brown ink-stained volume, a real, sensible story unfolded its adult sentences ("One day Ted said to Ann: Let us—"), the little reader's ultimate triumph and reward. I was thrilled by the thought that someday I might attain such proficiency. The magic has endured, and whenever a grammar book comes my way, I instantly turn to the last page to enjoy a forbidden glimpse of the laborious student's future, of that promised land where words are meant to mean what they mean. (80-81)

I will return to these three language learners as we go along. For now, let me turn to the three processes. These are: first, the natural process of second language acquisition; second, the processes of intervention, whereby a second language learner consciously promotes language acquisition by employing learning strategies, to use Bialystok's distinguishing label (1978:76-80); and, third, the process of interpretation, which participants apply to all communication.

My purpose here is not to review the research on these processes in any detailed or critical way but to characterize the major outlines of our current stances regarding them in order to provide a framework for assessing our instructional tasks. I think the chief current trend in ESL instruction is attention to processes, especially these three.

These three processes are of different types.

Let me turn first to the natural process of second language acquisition. I will devote a disproportionate amount of time to it because it has been the area of most concentrated research in recent years. Second language acquisition is an unconscious process. In recent years, error analysis has contributed to our understanding of the way that it proceeds by approximative stages, called interlanguages, each stage having its own grammar which represents the learner's hypotheses about how the target language works at that particular point in his or her development. In other words, errors, in contrast to mistakes, to use Pit Corder's distinction, are systematic (1967:166-67). But these stages of interlanguage are not sharply divided from each other. One stage merges into the next along an irregular and fluctuating boundary, like the ocean laps at the shore. (See Adjemian 1976.)

Currently, as I have indicated, research into the interlanguages of ESL learners is very active. Many researchers have investigated the order of acquisition of certain morphemes. (See brief history in Krashen 1978.) A few have investigated the order of acquisition of more complex structures (for example, d'Anglejan and Tucker 1975 and Ioup and Kruse 1977). Most of these researchers present evidence for a similar order of acquisition across learners from different first language backgrounds; that is, they argue for a natural order of acquisition.

Most recently, some researchers are arguing that studies of order of acquisition do not reveal how mastery has developed; that is, though these studies may reveal the order of mastery of a form, they do not reveal the process of acquiring that form, a process which involves the association of meaning with form. These researchers are investigating the ways that a second language learner uses a morpheme before mastery of it. It appears that there is system and sense to these pre-mastery uses. The learner uses a morpheme at pre-mastery level in a systematic way to express a meaning he or she feels the need to express, perhaps because of the influence of the first language, and the learner's progress toward the English use of that form follows a chartable path. (See Huebner 1979.)

These studies of second language acquisition have all looked at the acquisition of linguistic competence. It is not clear how the acquisition of the other elements of communicative competence relates to the acquisition of linguistic competence, though of course there must be language intake before linguistic competence can develop and the other elements of communicative competence may encourage intake. Margaret Mead communicated first and let the linguistic competence come later.

What is clear is that we have a great deal to learn about the natural processes of second language acquisition. About all we seem to know for sure is that these are processes of great complexity which are reflected in the developmental and approximative stages of interlanguage. These stages are marked by varying degrees and types of reformulations and simplifications of the target language. Leonard Bernstein's deliberate efforts to simplify the grammar would appear to be a reflex of a natural process.

At this point in our knowledge about the only way that we can take account of these natural processes in our instruction is through our understanding of their general nature and our recognition that these are processes located in the learner. But that is one way of taking account of them. It is premature to develop "natural" syllabuses for language instruction as Tarone, Swain, and Fathman (1976) have cautioned.

Researchers are, however, beginning to suggest that we can help learners learn how to consciously intervene in the natural process of second language acquisition. Let me turn now, and briefly, since there hasn't been a great deal of research, to the second kind of process, the processes of intervention—the learning strategies.

It is only fairly recently that researchers have begun to identify and investigate the strategies used by successful second language learners. Rubin (1974: 45-48), for example, identifies such strategies as being a good guesser, having a strong drive to communicate, being uninhibited, practicing, monitoring one's own speech and that of others, attending both to meaning and to form. Leonard Bernstein's method exemplifies a number of these. Certainly he has a strong drive to communicate, is uninhibited, and practices.

We need, as Rubin (48-49) points out, to know more about the nature of these strategies and to find out which ones are helpful for which learners for which learning tasks at which point in their development. We need to understand the many constraints on these strategies having to do with motivation, personality, attitudes, and individual learning styles as well as with opportunity.

The third kind of process, the process of interpretation, is a type of guessing based on conventional clues. It is the kind of problem-solving that we engage in when we use language. Though how we arrive at interpretations of what is being communicated is often out-of-awareness, we know in specific instances what our interpretation is, and we sometimes talk about it or argue about it. It is in the nature of communication that the sense, the import, of what is being communicated is always subject to interpretation, and people differ in their interpretations as well as in their ability to interpret, phenomena we are all familiar with.

Sociolinguists and linguists are identifying the elements that contribute to meaning, and discourse analysts are investigating the ways that these elements interact to provide clues to meaning. There are clues to the propositional meanings—what language says—and to the illocutionary meanings—what language does. Among the clues, in addition to the linguistic structure, there are the explicit ways of linking sentences together, the system of cohesion, which Halliday and Hasan (1976) have explored in great detail for English, and there are the Hymesian components (Hymes 1967) of setting, the relationships between participants, their knowledge and experience, the topics, and so forth.

Think of the task for the second language learner! It is not enough for him or her to attend to linguistic structure alone. Indeed, interpretation of the linguistic structures will sometimes be dependent on perception of their illocutionary meaning which, in turn, may be dependent on interpreting clues located in the non-linguistic context.

What, then, of instruction? It would seem that we should work from the outside in instead of from the inside out, from the world to the sentence, rather than from the sentence to the world.

Traditionally, the methodological tasks of ESL teachers, materials writers, and curriculum developers have been selection, gradation, and presentation. (See, for example, Mackey 1965.)

Selection has been defined as the choice of items to be taught. In the audio-lingual method, for example, these items were linguistic structures and features; i.e., items from the grammatical system, the sound system, and the lexicon. For that particular method, the distinctive criterion for selection of items was evidence of difference between the native and target languages as determined by contrastive analysis.

Gradation is the overall ordering, the sequencing, of those items. Instruction occurs over time, over so many hours in a week and so many weeks in a school term. Gradation is the distribution of the selected items over time. A course syllabus displays a particular gradation. Justifications for particular orderings of linguistic features have appealed to such criteria as moving from easier to harder to learn, linguistically simple to linguistically complex, more to less frequent—contrasts which have not always been reliably measurable.

Presentation is how the textbook or other teaching materials along with the teacher tries to get that which has been selected and ordered across to the learner.

These tasks of selection, gradation, and presentation are still the methodological tasks of ESL teachers, materials writers, and curriculum developers, but we are approaching them very differently from the way we used to.

First, selection. We have come, I think, to general agreement that the domain from which we select that which we teach is not the linguistic system of the target language but the communication needs of the learners. This does not mean that there is not attention to linguistic competency; it means that linguistic competency is viewed as only one of the inter-related elements supporting the learner's communication needs.

Currently, the communication needs of learners are identified along a continuum from specific at one end to global at the other. The specific end is illustrated by some of the work going on in ESP—English for specific purposes—which is at least sometimes marked by attention to the process of interpretation of discourse (cf. Candlin: 1976b:253). That is, it is these processes that are selected for teaching, not linguistic items or speech acts treated as items. The global end is usually discussed in terms of the functional-notional syllabus, which is sometimes perceived as a listing of speech acts with their linguistic manifestations.

It is perhaps natural that English for specific purposes has moved in the direction of attention to discourse and the process of interpretation, since the communication events in which the students will participate are identifiable. In courses with a global purpose, where the communicative events in which students will ultimately participate are not specifically identifiable, there appears to be some tendency to deal with the functions of language as items rather than as processes, a tendency which both Candlin (e.g. 1976b:x-xi) and Coulthard (e.g. 1975:75) have warned against as simply replacing one set of isolates with another, speech acts as items replacing linguistic structures as items. And though of course it is recognized that language functions are realized through discourse, it is not so easy to give attention to the process of interpretation in courses with a more global orientation. The reason, it seems to me, is largely because no shared segment of real world knowledge and experience is automatically there in a more global course, as it is in ESP, to provide a sustained framework for discourse.

For this reason, part of the task of selection, then, becomes the selection of segments of real world knowledge and experience, which themselves are essential clues to the interpretation of meaning. Remember that Margaret Mead always made it a point to know what people were talking about. She had real world knowledge which she shared with the people she was talking with to assist her in her efforts at communication. And Vladimir Nabokov as a child presumably brought his knowledge of what stories should be to bear on his language textbook and somehow managed to read the textbook sentences as a story with characters, albeit a very thin setting and plot. And although I didn't include it in the summary earlier, Leonard Bernstein also reported on his experience of understanding almost everything that a monk told him, in Italian, about some Italian frescoes. I would suspect that a large part of his understanding came from his knowledge of the subject.

It is not just that language is learned for an end beyond itself. It is these ends beyond language that provide many of the clues that make interpretation, and hence language learning, possible. Selection of the process of interpretation as that which we teach implies selection also of the segments of knowledge and experience that will provide a framework —and a sustained framework—for language use. English for specific purposes has this built in. How can we incorporate it into instruction for other learners?

Segments might be drawn from the subject matter courses of a school curriculum. Or they might consist of stories that create a world that the learners can share—and we need to identify appropriate stories for all age levels. For the adult immigrants the segments might be areas of life like practical economics or practical politics or sociocultural patterns. For children, one is reminded of the Organic Vocabulary that Sylvia Ashton-Warner drew out of Maori children, which helped her identify their common world of feelings and experiences, as she reported in *Teacher*. Anything will do that establishes for the learners a world of shared knowledge experience that has real meaning for them.

What then of gradation? There has not been much attention to gradation in recent professional literature. Perhaps the two overriding points relating to gradation are, first, as far as the communicative aspects are concerned, each syllabus must be developed for its target learners and their particular needs—the question of what the single best sequencing is simply does not arise as it did in the development of linguistic syllabuses; and, second, as far as the linguistic aspects are concerned, the learners operate on their own timetables, and there are presumably similar processes of mastery and perhaps the same order of mastery for all learners but at individual rates. The existence of a natural process of second language acquisition implies that the learner is the one who does the grading,

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CURRENT TRENDS

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taking in from the input that which he or she is ready to take in.

For syllabuses, Wilkins (1976:58-69) has suggested an overall cyclic approach to gradation, returning to the same language functions but each time dealing with them in terms of different contexts of situation. He suggests that within each cycle there may be no intrinsic ordering. Candlin (1976b:xi) has suggested what he calls encounter syllabuses, where learners might be given progressive experiences with the Hymesian components in the interpretation of discourse. He has also suggested (1976b: xiii) that grading might be a process of "gradually increasing the questionability of meaning."

Widdowson (1978:91-93), who also argues for the teaching of processes, not items, has suggested grading by establishing meaning first and then moving from simple through complex verbal expression of that meaning. In reading scientific discourse, for example, he would establish meaning through the use of charts and diagrams, first accompanied by simple sentences, and then by discourse, with exercises requiring the learner to draw on the framework of meaning that has been established.

Again, it needs to be emphasized that attention to the process of interpretation of meaning does not mean that attention is not given to speech acts and linguistic features. Indeed, they operate within a discoursal framework. And information about them can certainly be systematized and presented to the learner as appropriate. Such systematization from time to time of portions of the system after the fact of use is probably more meaningful to the learner than it is before the fact of use.

Finally, presentation. Presentation can be roughly divided into two areas. First is the language data that is presented to the learners as input. Second is the procedures for setting up interaction between the learners and the language data to encourage intake and output. The former is the domain of materials and the latter of methods.

In materials, a major issue currently is the use of unsimplified vs. simplified texts, simplified meaning texts prepared specifically for the consumption of a second language learner. In cases where discourse analysts have described the discourse structure of specific communicative events, then we have the information to prepare simplified materials that approximate the real and which provide controlled practice in interpreting the clues to meaning. Where we don't have this information we need to explore how to choose and use unsimplified materials. Controlling the language input requires knowledge of what it is that we are controlling, and if we don't know, we had better err in the direction of exposing the student to too much, rather than to too little data, though of course we need to use judgment and not overwhelm the learner. The use of unsimplified materials is an area that needs a lot of exploration and research.

In methods, we are currently working on ways to bring learners into meaningful contact with the data. Not all our learners will be as highly motivated or uninhibited as Leonard Bernstein. We need to find out more about learning strategies so that we can help the learner help himself or herself. Note that it was in the real world that Margaret Mead and Leonard Bernstein successfully learned second languages, and that although Vladimir Nabokov successfully learned English in the classroom, he had to overcome the impediments that instruction put between him and the language in order to do so. We need to learn how not to interfere with language learning, to use a title from a 1966 paper by Leonard Newmark. We need to learn how to transfer the methods of successful language learners into the classroom.

But I want to reiterate once more that linguistic form—the code—of course needs attention. Let me give one example of how attention to a linguistic feature can be built in to a communication exercise. The example is an adaptation of Dick Via's talk and listen technique which he discusses in his book *English in Three Acts* (1976). It illustrates some of things that I have been talking about.

Let's assume a class of post-adolescent learners who are perhaps at intermediate level. Let's take the overall segment of experience and knowledge to be hobbies and leisure time activities. Let's say that the linguistic feature selected for practice is the use of the articles *a* for first mention, *the* for second mention or shared knowledge, and *one* as a pro-form sometimes for *a* plus noun and sometimes for just a noun.

The example consists of two three-line dialogues with two speakers. Speaker A is given two "first" utterances, Speaker B, two "second" utterances, and Speaker A two "third" utterances. Each speaker has only his or her own utterances in written form. As the speakers speak they are to read silently and then look up at their partner as they speak.

Speaker A selects one of the "first" utterances. That will determine which one of the "second" utterances that B chooses for a response, which in turn will determine which one of the "third" utterances A chooses.

A. I'd like a book on running. OR
Do you have the latest reference book on antiques?

B. Here's one everyone is reading. OR
Is this the one you mean?

A. Yes. I think that's the one my grandmother told me about.

B. Oh, yes, that's the one they mentioned at the marathon clinic.

Note that B has to understand A to decide whether he must use a definite article in his response. B can also bring real world knowledge to bear. If A has used the utterance about a reference book, it is not likely that it would be a book that "everyone is reading." Note also that there are two forms of request in the first utterance: "I'd like . . ." and "Do you have . . ."; also, that *Yes* is an answer to a question and *Oh, yes* is simply an expression of recognition; also that *talked about* and *mentioned* have different connotations; also, that the reference to "my grandmother" is like talking to oneself. A teacher can talk with the students about these various kinds of meanings and the clues used to interpret them to the depth that seems appropriate for the particular group of students.

The current focus on processes, then, is offering us many insights into the role of instruction in second language learning. I would conclude by pointing out that language instruction, too, is a process. The teacher is a facilitator, and being a facilitator is a very active and demanding role. To be a facilitator requires that the teacher, on the basis of wide professional knowledge and experience, be constantly interpreting the many clues in the learning environment and charting learning activities based on those clues.

Editor's note: Ruth Crymes presented this paper at Indiana TESOL's 1st Convention in October, just before her death on a trip to Mexico, October 31st, 1979.

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WHY IS MY NEWSLETTER ALWAYS LATE?

A Report from the Editor

It is, hopefully, reflective of your evaluation of what we attempt to do with the *TESOL Newsletter* (*TN*), that most of the mail we get is positive and constructive, and not occasionally instructive. We do get letters which reflect your anxieties as well.

"I am writing to complain about the delivery date of my *TESOL Newsletter*, especially the last issue. Since I want to keep abreast of current meetings, the due dates for papers, and the employment opportunities, it is very annoying to discover the closing dates have long passed."

"April 10. Enclosed is an announcement of an opening in our program. The deadline for applications is April 30. Can you please get this into the next issue?"

"April 30. Enclosed is an announcement of an opening in our program. The deadline for application is May 30. Can you please get this into the next issue?"

"May 10. Enclosed is an announcement of an opening in our program. The deadline for application is June 30. Can you please get this into the next issue?"

"I sent you an article two months ago and have not heard about its disposal. I wonder if you could tell me if you will use it or not as I would like to send it to another publication if you do not."

"I want to apologize for Mr. Smith's article appearing in our publication as well as yours. Had we known that it had been sent to and accepted for your newsletter we would not have printed it, out of professional courtesy, and because our policy is generally not to reprint articles."

"My address has changed. Will you please send my *Newsletter* to the following address?"

"I did not receive the March issue of the *Newsletter*. Could you please send me a copy?

"I think that it is appalling that the *TESOL Newsletter* uses such sexist language. In Ms. Larson's column she refers to the contributions of Ms. Duggan as 'Mary this . . .' and 'Mary that . . .' throughout the article. I note too that a number of articles refer to the teacher always as she. This kind of sexist use of language should be stopped."

"You left out the name of the publisher and the date of publication from the review of John Boyd's book in the April issue. How can I get ahold of a copy of that book?"

"I would like to write to Professor Marks but you did not print his address or affiliation along with his article. Can you please send me his address?"

"I enjoyed your article on Handwriting. Could you please send me a bibliography on the subject. Please send me any other materials that you have . . ."

"Enjoyed your last issue very much, especially the article on preparing papers for the Convention. Our membership would find this very useful. Can we reprint it in our Newsletter?"

"Your article on "A Bare-Bones Bibliography" was excellent. Can I duplicate it for use in my methods class?"

No matter how many people I ask to read and edit galleys and page proofs and brownlines (photographic copies made just prior to printing), or how much effort the printer takes to double check our checking, typos, misspellings, and other oddments seem to remain a part of each issue. It seems incredible that mistakes can occur in the heads (titles of articles) when they stick out so plainly and would seem to be the first thing one would check. Yet errors continue to occur. Even spaces which would be expected to be free of error because they remain the same over a long period of time have their gremlins—witness the spelling of our President's name in the last *two* issues of the *TN* (back page box).

While we do get criticism of various kinds, and try to print those which seem constructive or informative, it would seem that the two biggest complaints are about not receiving the *TN* at all (a problem which is best satisfied by writing directly to the Central Office, which handles membership lists and mailing labels); and the even more frustrating problem of not getting the *Newsletter* on time.

As you have noted, no doubt, in the publication information which appears in the left hand box on the back page of each issue alongside the box which lists organizational information, there is a line which states that "the Newsletter is published six times a year; in February, April, June, August, October, and December. Articles or advertising submitted for publication should be received no later than the first of the month prior to publication." And further on in the box it states, (usually correctly), that "the deadline for the next issue is. . . ." This seems to be missed by a large number of people who write or call—weekly—asking if it is "too late to get something into the next issue of the *Newsletter*." We generally try to accommodate these requests, because we are, after all, mandated to serve the membership, to provide current information, news, etc.

It has never taken less than four weeks between the sending of copy (material gathered for a particular issue) to the printer and its ultimate printing as the *Newsletter* (not, mind you, putting the material together in the first place, nor the mailing—just the "printing" schedule). This four week process is preceded by a variety of processes depending upon the quality, quantity, and condition of the material submitted or gathered for a particular issue. Some has to be edited, some rewritten to fit our style or need for space. Most articles are read by at least three *TN* staff members before they are selected for inclusion into the *Newsletter*. Information sometimes has to be checked or researched in order to get copy ready for the printer. Many things need to be either returned for rewriting or typed by the Editor before being sent to the printer. This involves the handling of over a hundred pages of material before copy is ready to send to the printer—for each issue.

The printer first renders the copy into galley sheets (8½ x 23 inch long single columns of copy the width they will eventually appear in the final *Newsletter*). These are proofread for errors by the printer and then by the Editor, and in our case also by at least three additional members of the Editorial staff. The Editor then strips one set of galleys and lays out the copy into 8½ by 11 pages (three columns wide) approximately as they will appear as a newsletter. This dummy (layout) is sent, along with the corrected galleys, back to the printer, who makes corrections in the set type and has an artist (layout man) render the corrected copy into clean photographable camera-ready pages along the lines suggested in the dummy sent by the Editor. A copy is made of these pages, and these "page proofs" are sent to the Editor for further editing (proofing for typos, checking layout format, adding missing or new copy, deleting extra copy or finding a place for it, etc.). Ads are placed, pictures inserted, artwork, boxing, and pagination are coordinated at this time. The corrected page proofs are returned to the printer, who, after making whatever changes are indicated, has the copy made into photographic negatives from which a copy called a brownline (or blueline) is made. This copy is cut, folded, and stitched (stapled) in the form as close to its final production as possible. This brownline is then sent to the Editor who double checks copy, heads, layout, etc. Often this is the first time the Editor sees the pages with pictures, ads, and other artwork in place, and can get a feel for what the final printed form will be like. After all final changes are made by the printer, the *Newsletter* is ready to be printed. Some ten thousand copies are printed of what has lately been a 32 page *Newsletter*. The pages are printed, cut, folded, stitched and allowed to dry. Labels are ordered from the computer (up-to-date computerized list of the membership) and attached to the finished *Newsletter*, which is then bundled by zip and de-

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WHY IS MY NEWSLETTER ALWAYS LATE?

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posited at the Bloomington, Illinois, post office.

This process, from organizing copy for the printer to its shipment to the PO, takes from six to eight weeks. There is overlapping, to be sure. While one *Newsletter* is in the "from galley to printed" stage, copy for the next issue (2-3 months away) is being put together—as much as can be gathered that far ahead of time. After an issue has been printed and during the period, often up to a month, that it takes for copy to get from the PO to the membership (bulk rate permit mail doesn't receive priority treatment), we are working on the galleys and page proofs for the next issue. (While you were waiting to receive the June issue, we had sent copy to the printer to be set into galleys for the August issue, minus this article which may or may not be finished for that issue.)

We are aware that the purpose of the *TN* is in large part the dissemination of current information. It appears six times a year and theoretically in a format that should facilitate currency. We try to get it to you in time for the information, especially job openings, announcements of meetings and calls for papers to be useful. Much of the delay is caused by last minute additions and corrections but when someone calls, and if we can "stop the presses," so to speak (actually almost anything but stopping the presses), we try to find space. But each change, after the page proofs have been returned for photographic reproduction, delays the issue two or three days (because type has to be set, camera-ready copy made, and a new photographic negative processed).

We have tried a number of things, including the enlistment of an Editorial Staff and Advisory Board, in hopes of cutting down on our production time for each issue. While the addition of the Editorial Staff has reduced the work load of the Editor by providing a means through which the ever increasing number of articles and other contributions can be processed for publication, by allowing for the production of regular features (It Works, Affiliate and SIG news, and Book Reviews), and by providing additional proofreaders, it has at the same time added delays—delays that result in a better if not more timely issue each two months. The Editorial Staff members, like the Editor, contribute their time on the *Newsletter* gratis, in addition to full-time employment and in addition to other professional obligations not only to TESOL but to local affiliates and allied organizations. They do so without secretarial help or institutional support. In addition to the writing and reviewing requests of the Editor, most of the staff members also receive at one time or other, in one of its forms or another a galley or page proof or xerox of the proposed newsletter for proofing. It is hard to imagine that they also find time or have the energy to write books, organize and run local and national conventions, give papers and make presentations at various other professional meetings and it should be noted that this work goes on during what are supposed to be vacation periods as well. Some of the staff also volunteer their time and energies towards the preparation and printing of the *Convention Daily* issued during our annual conventions, and in the preparation and presentation of our workshops for affiliate and SIG editors conducted during those conventions.

We hope you will continue to write and tell us where we are doing what you like and where we can improve. We appreciate your creative contributions, too, even some of those we are unable to print or those meant for "us" only. There have been an increasing number of contributions over the past few years—solicited, unsolicited, and routed through the *Quarterly*. Our policy has been, generally, to print those articles or contributions which are timely, easy to read and use, and fairly short. We have tried to avoid technical jargon, statistics, and the more theoretical or research oriented material in favor of readability. We hope we are readable, not only the quality of our information but our quantity. If the reader has to put the *Newsletter* (or an article) down, to "read it later," then we have failed in our purpose—especially if the reader never gets around to "reading it" later. Unlike many other professional publications we have been generally able to get articles into print within a reasonable time after submission—I would guess within four months for most articles. Sometimes there has been a longer delay. Space considerations often dictate this, as certain issues have priority copy which must be printed such as [illegible]-convention information, nominee biographies, etc. Some frustration does accrue as a result of lack of response by the Editor as to whether or not an article has been received and/or will be used. Mostly this is due to the Editor's piled up desk and over-stuffed mail box.

Two requests (or complaints) which we hear about fairly often can best be handled by writing directly to the Central Office: changes of address and requests for additional or un-received copies of past issues of the *TN*. (I route all such requests sent to me on to the Central office since I do not handle the mailing list nor do I have, other than for file purposes, extra copies of the *TN*.) Requests for advertising, other than short announcements of job openings, should be sent to Aaron Berman, the Director of Exhibits and Advertising, whose address and telephone number appear on the back page of each issue. It should be noted that the Central Office of TESOL also provides employment service for employees and job seekers. (See box on page 25 which announces a new, joint, TESOL-CAL Job Placement Service.) One way to supplement the job openings section of the *TN* is to write directly to the TESOL Central Office for such information.

The largest number of letters we receive are for permission to reprint articles which have appeared in the *TN*. Our policy has been that anything that appears in the *TN* may be reprinted in other publications or used in the classroom as long as credit is given to the original source and the author. We usually suggest that the author be notified of the reprinting and that we and the author receive copies when possible. Most authors, and certainly the *TN*, find it pleasurable to be reprinted. This year "Selected Articles from the TESOL Newsletter" were submitted to ERIC for inclusion into its information banks. Original articles and *It Works* columns were pulled from the *TN* and divided into categories (methods, general information, bilingual education, evaluation) for easier access. Articles from Volumes I-IX will be a single ERIC entry and subsequent volumes beginning with Vol. X will be entered as separate entries. We are grateful that those articles which have been printed in past *TN*s will now be preserved and made available for future readers.

We hope that we give you what you want in the *Newsletter* and that we occasionally provide ideas and information that are current and useful. We genuinely appreciate your letters of praise and your letters which respond to what we print. We are glad to have your letters that keep us on our toes and inform us of your interests. We are more than aware of the errors we make and the problem of making the date on the masthead meaningful and we are trying to do better with our correspondence, both relative to your contributions and those requesting information. Keep at us, keep us informed about what you want to see in future issues and keep reading.

WE HAVE MOVED!

All correspondence to the Central Office should be sent to:

TESOL
202 D.C. Transit Bldg.
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Tel. (202)625-4569

IT WORKS

Edited by Darlene Larson
New York University

The writer states that the following "has proved to be an enjoyable and educationally worthwhile experience for both students and teachers." On a visit to Israel, Wilga Rivers remarked that teacher performed plays were being used as a method of testing oral proficiency at Harvard. Teachers at Bar Ilan who had been using group discussion as a means of testing oral proficiency combined that method with a teacher performed mini-play to provide a topic for the students to discuss. We are grateful to Mona Schreiber for taking the time to share this idea with us.

The Mini-Play: A New Direction in Oral Proficiency Testing

by Mona Schreiber
Bar Ilan University

At the outset, the mini-play worked espcially well in breaking the ice, by setting students at ease about their exams as worry gave way to curiosity. Our students, English literature majors, all non-native speakers of English, were not expected to merely *report* about the facts of the play, but rather were encouraged to interpret the play and discuss their ideas about the themes it raised. It wasn't easy to find a suitable dialogue, but "The Ladder" from *Talk English* by Jupp et al was finally chosen. This mini-play consists of a series of short dialogues, linguistically simple, portraying a confidence trick. Using a few basic props only, three teachers played the parts of gullible passers-by who are stopped on the street by a smooth talking con artist, and are urged to climb the ladder, after handing over their valuables. The con artist and his accomplice walk off the stage carrying away both valuables and ladder at the end of the play.

Discussion questions included:
What does this situation represent?
What would you have done in a similar situation?
Are the people easily tricked?
Do people tend to conform? Why or why not?
Is there such a thing as a natural born leader? Charisma?
Is respect for authority a good thing?
How would different nationalities react in such a situation?

In the conversations that were held during the exam, students expressed their own ideas and opinions on these subjects and also shared original interpretations with each other in a very lively manner that was lovely to listen to. Students were most eager to react to our questions and comment on the play while sounding each other out. A lot of good interaction took place as students tried to convince their group members of their own way of interpreting the play. Many students also showed a good understanding of the subtleties of the play picked up from the visual cues, such as the deeper relationships between the actors and their true intentions. Some students even related to the play on a symbolic rather than a literal level. Complete student participation in the group discussions showed us that the mini-play had achieved its purpose in motivating and developing communication.

As a means of testing oral proficiency, group discussions have been used with consistent success at Bar Ilan over the past few years. In this case, after watching the mini-play, students left the auditorium to discuss one of the questions listed above above in front of a panel of four language teachers for about ten minutes. Groups of four students were invited to hold their discussion in comfortable chairs around a coffee table. The examiners sat at the back of the room listening to the conversation, each teacher evaluating another aspect of the students' speech. Out of a total score of 25 points, 5 were given for correct syntax, 5 for vocabulary use, 5 for pronunciation and 10 for communicative competence, or the overall impression of the student's oral proficiency, and participation in the discussion. The mark for communicative competence was given by each teacher and then averaged into a final mark out of 10 for that component. Before the play, students were told that teachers would be listening for their ability to interact and include others in the discussion. Students were rewarded with a high score for using a rich vocabulary, showing idiomatic usage of the language and control of the syntax. They were penalized for such errors as a lack of vocabulary, wrong tense, poor pronunciation, weak structures. Minor errors that didn't cause a breakdown in communication were overlooked.

Mini-plays and group testing reflect new directions in oral testing that promise to be well worth the teachers' preparation time in giving such as exam. Mini-plays may be adapted to all kinds of situations whose purpose is to encourage communication among students by challenging their imagination. Try it —you'll find it a refreshing change in testing, an experience you and your students will look back on with pleasure.

ESTABLISHING ESL CERTIFICATION IN YOUR STATE: A STEP-BY-STEP GUIDE

by **Gina Cantoni-Harvey**
Northern Arizona University
Chair, TESOL Committee on Schools and Universities Coordination

The need for certifying teachers in ESL and bilingual education is being recognized by an increasing number of states, as a result of increased awareness of the special needs of students with limited English proficiency, of changing immigration problems, and of recent legislation resulting from court rulings such as the "Lau Decision." In the four years since 1976 the number of states and territories with bilingual certification or endorsement increased from 11 to 19; those with ESL from 4 to 13, and those with both from 3 to 7. As promising as the statistics are, there is still much tod o. Some of the issues involved have been discussed by me in the *TESOL Newsletter*, June, 1979 and October, 1979 and in the *Linguistic Reporter*, December, 1979, and by Marilyn Appelson in the *TESOL Newsletter*, April, 1980. For those interested in obtaining ESL certification in your state or territory, the following steps are offered as a helpful guide in your efforts.

1. **Form an ad hoc ESL Certification Committee** or Task Force with members of your TESOL Affiliate and any other interested groups; try to include only willing workers.

2. **Study** the TESOL Guidelines on the Certification and Preparation of ESL teachers and the TESOL Position Paper on the Role of ESL in Bilingual Education. These documents are available from TESOL and are contained in the *Directory of Teacher Preparation Programs in TESOL and Bilingual Education, 1978-81*, compiled and edited by Charles H. Blatchford, TESOL, 1979.

3. **Conduct a Needs Assessment** with two components: (a) a survey of the population to be served, and (b) a survey of available teachers' skills and competencies.

a. The data made available by the National Institute of Education provide overwhelming evidence of the large percentage of persons of limited English proficiency in the U.S. (see Dorothy Waggoner, "Non-English Language Background Persons: Three U.S. Surveys," *TESOL Quarterly*, 1978, Vol. 12, No. 3). However, these figures are based on the 1976 Census; it would be appropriate for your Certification Committee to be armed with the latest information about the numbers of persons of limited English proficiency who live in your state now, with breakdowns according to language, age group, and school district. The figures are probably on file with your state Department of Education; if they are not, you need to contact each district.

b. The article by Dorothy Waggoner, "Teacher Resources in Bilingual Education: A National Survey" (*NABE Journal*, Vol. III, No. 2), contains important data about the lack of professional preparation in ESL as well as in bilingual instruction. You should survey each school district to find out the needs of staff members instructing students of limited English proficiency. The Certification Committee for the State of Oregon, which includes members of the ORTESOL Affiliate, has constructed a useful model for the questionnaire for this survey.

4. **Familiarize yourselves with** (a) the Bilingual Education Act and its Amendments; (b) the *Lau* decisions and any court decisions on bilingual education issued in your state; (c) the entire issue of Civil Rights in the area of equal educational opportunity nationwide and in your state. The Bilingual Office of your state Department of Education should be able to supply this information; if not, contact the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 1300 Wilson Blvd., Suite B2-11, Rosslyn, VA 22209.

5. **Clarify your goals.** What do you want that present state legislation doesn't already offer? For example, does your state already offer certification in bilingual education? If you obtain certification for ESL teachers, will this mean that these persons will not be acceptable as teachers of English (as opposed to ESL)? Are you seeking free-standing certification (similar to certification in a foreign language or other subjects) for ESL secondary teachers? How about elementary teachers? The article, "Certification in TESL," by Marilyn Appelson, which appeared in the April, 1980 *TESOL Newsletter*, discusses other relevant questions you should consider.

6. Armed with clear objectives and with information on needs and on legal issues **contact** your state Department of Education, the State Committee on Teacher Preparation and Standards and the Board of Regents. Find out their attitudes about the possibility of establishing ESL certification, their concerns, possible problems, potential support. Establish the most positive rapport you can with these people. They are usually very sincere in their commitment to the betterment of education, but may not be as well informed as you are on the difference between ESL and bilingual instruction and on the essential and supportive role of ESL in bilingual education. They may also think of ESL as a method and not a subject, which would preclude certification. If they have already granted certification in bilingual education, which is certainly not a subject, you have a precedent in your favor. The Harvey article cited earlier (*TESOL Newsletter*, June 1979) contains a brief sketch on the differences between a bilingual teacher, an ESL teacher and an English teacher, and may be useful in clarifying this issue to persons not familiar with it.

7. When you have a clear understanding of what obstacles have to be overcome in order to achieve your goal, **obtain letters of support** from organizations that share your views: TESOL, your TESOL affiliate, MLA, NAFSA, NABE, IRA, NCTE and others. Both collective and individual letters are useful; if possible, they should be written on official stationery. The letters are to be sent to the head of your state Department of Education.

8. **Get in touch with legislators** and members of the Board of Regents to explain your mission and obtain support. John Fanselow, who has directed the Task Force for Certification in New York, recommends the following procedure (personal communication):

a. Telephone to make an appointment to present your case.

b. Hold a first get-acquainted meeting, explaining what you want and why in a most positive and non-threatening fashion. Leave material to be studied.

c. Have a second meeting after your contacts have had time to digest the information and together decide on the most effective plan of favorable intervention.

9. **Prepare a written proposal** containing all pertinent information and the strongest statement possible of the necessity and appropriateness of establishing ESL certification in your state. A useful model is "A Proposal for a Certificate of Specialization in the Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages," by a Task Force of New York State English to Speakers of Other Languages/Bilingual Educators Association, Box 185, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, NY 10027. The Proposal is remarkably thorough and includes the following items:

a. A request for State certification, based upon the existing inequities affecting (1) the students from non-English speaking homes, who do not receive

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CERTIFICATION: STEP BY STEP GUIDE

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equal educational opportunity, and (2) the teachers who are not hired as readily as teachers with certificates.

b. A statement of need, based upon numerical information on the number of non-native speakers of English in the state and the small number of such speakers who have teachers labeled (but not certified) as ESL teachers (as compared with students of foreign languages who are taught by certified teachers).

c. A recognition of need as evidenced by the existence of university programs and degrees in TESOL; government guidelines and court decisions such as the *Lau* vs. *Nichols* Supreme Court decree at the national level and other possible court decisions in your state; and position papers and resolutions by professional organizations such as the Modern Language Association, the national TESOL organization and possibly your TESOL affiliate.

d. A definition of the role and abilities of the Teacher of English to Speakers of Other Languages.

e. A description of the necessary competencies of teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages as defined in the TESOL Guidelines.

f. An estimate of the relatively small cost of certification to the state and to local districts.

If you need further information and additional suggestions, contact the TESOL Standing Committee on Schools and Universities Coordination.

TN 8/80

AN ESL INSTRUCTIONAL SUPPLEMENT: THE VOLUNTEER

by Marilyn Appelson
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According to national statistics, there are 70 million people willing to give free time and talent for the satisfaction of helping others. Recently, the prospect of using a portion of this vast group in English as a Second Language Programs has produced some anxiety. Based primarily on misinformation, a patchwork of prejudices and predispositions have emerged. It would be unfortunate indeed for dedicated ESL professionals to prematurely and arbitrarily foreclose volunteers from participation in the field of TESOL. This descriptive review is intended to help resolve some of the anxiety over volunteers in TESOL.

The impact of an increased population of non-native speakers of English, coupled with limitations of instructional time and budget, result in ESL classes that cannot always answer all students' needs. The policy of open entry enrollment brings new students into each class session and an unanticipated increase in student/teacher ratio for many classes. Non-compulsory attendance and cost free instruction result in some irregular class attenders.

Incoming students cannot always be placed appropriately. Speaking abilities, literacy levels and even grade levels do not generally coincide. Within an ESL classroom, teachers contend with students with varying speaking and reading levels; students who can speak, but can't read or write; students who can read and write English, but are reluctant speakers and perhaps students who have learning disabilities or physical impairments. The list can go on and on. The demand to expand the opportunities for language acquisition and the necessity to provide an increased variety of communication skills to newly arrived foreign students, while still maintaining quality instructional situations, are challenges with which every classroom ESL teacher can identify.

Accountability is also a reality of Adult Education ESL programs. A measure of a teacher's success is often the retention rate of the students and the documented progress made in learning. Therefore, in ESL tuition free classes which consist of voluntary attenders, teachers must seek out knowledge, methods, techniques and resources from many fields to insure quality performance.

Instruction which will provide students with "communicative competence" is the goal toward which every professional ESL teacher strives. ESL literature and academicians advocate that an instructional approach to adult ESL teaching be governed primarily by students' goals. Based on the identified needs and goals of the students, the professional ESL instructor makes judgements and choices concerning appropriate strategies, methods and materials which will assist students in reaching their goals. Materials and selected human resources are all "teachers" if they help the students learn. Several forms of "teachers", both human and non-human, both professional and non-professional should be employed, if the ESL teacher is to truly facilitate the learning of language skills. A volunteer can be categorized as still another learning aid in the instructional environment. Since the professional teacher makes the choices and judgements in the classroom, it follows that, as with techniques and materials, the decision to use volunteers be governed by the appropriateness for both the students' needs and the teacher's instructional techniques.

Community volunteers are scattered throughout the United States. Men and women with expertise in many fields are willing and eager to assist with their time and energy to help students. As professional ESL teachers search for appropriate teaching devices, attention should be given to this skilled group of dedicated individuals. They have helped with many of society's problems, why not with TESOL? The question, however, is how can the efforts and talents of volunteers be constructively utilized to help students learn. To be a functional component of an instructional ESL program it is imperative that volunteers be *adequately screened, oriented, effectively trained, assigned specific tasks and properly supervised*. The concept that volunteers can be selected indiscriminately and summarily assigned the task of tutoring non-native speakers is counter productive to all concerned.

The training of a volunteer begins with the initial contact made by the interested volunteer candidate. Similar to the process through which paid employees are selected, volunteers respond to advertisements, articles in newspapers, flyers or to word-of-mouth publicity. A new volunteer fills out an application and is scheduled for a one-to-one interview and orientation with a program staff member. The mission of the program, the types of volunteer opportunities, the availability, the commitment and the special skills or talents of the volunteer candidate are discussed. The interview has important training aspects. In this learning environment, both parties are seeking information. The prospective volunteer is given an opportunity to understand the specific program and to decide if the volunteer services sought are of interest. Determining the ability, suitability and talents of the new volunteer are the concerns of the program interviewer. Since the initial interview serves as a learning process for the new volunteer, the interviewer must be an integral part of the program, knowledgeable in the unique components of the particular program, the population it serves, its organization, its rules and policies, its requirements and, above all, the expectations which the volunteer may anticipate from the program. The interview is an orientation process, a time to evaluate the volunteer's potential and an opportunity for the volunteer to make a commitment to the program.

In adult ESL programs, the professional ESL teacher is more often than not a part time employee and hence unavailable to provide in-depth, in-service training for the volunteer. Therefore, structured workshop sessions conducted by program specialists are required for all volunteers prior to their specific assignments. Individuals, concurrently involved and familiar with the program, the materials, and the student and teacher needs, train and prepare the volunteers for possible tasks identified by the ESL teachers. After the volunteers are oriented, trained and assigned, staff members provide supervision, support and evaluation. The entire training process is continually evaluated to insure responsiveness to students, teachers and program.

Students in ESL classes can generally benefit from additional help and practice. Volunteers recruited, selected, effectively trained and supported, provide an additional resource to help meet the needs and concerns of ESL students; assist with beginning students needing individualized attention; provide additional conversational opportunities for reluctant speakers; provide literacy instruction to limited English speakers, illiterate or semi-illiterate in their native language, or literate in a language with a non-Roman alphabet; give individualized attention to students whose goals tend toward individual instructional approaches; supplement and help expand the students' use of English; provide "catch up" tutoring for late registrants and "make-up" tutoring for irregular attenders; supply an additional personal touch and concern for the students' needs which will encourage adult students to keep regular attendance; augment language production through a casual and informal format not always available in the classroom setting; provide home instruction to non-native physically impaired students unable to attend regularly scheduled ESL

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THE VOLUNTEER

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classes; provide the ESL teacher with another native speaker as a role model and someone who can monitor small group activities.

ESL volunteers and professional ESL teachers can mutually benefit each other and jointly provide a unique educational atmosphere for learning. The professional teacher is still the "best teacher" to select appropriate materials and an instructional plan which will help students achieve communicative competency. The volunteer, however, can contribute to the humanistic trend in teaching which stresses the whole student. In addition, the volunteer will enrich good instruction and assist the classroom teacher in responding to open entry registration, diverse levels and irregular student attendance. Volunteers are a talented force which can expand the innovative and creative aspects of teaching English to speakers of other languages.

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QUESTIONING IN COUNSELING-LEARNING

by Daniel D. Tranel

The rationale for asking questions or for not asking questions in the Counseling-Learning approach to education, on the part of the learner, has been and perhaps still remains somewhat unclear. At first sight, what could be more natural than to ask a question in order to find out what one does not know! Don't we do this every day as a practical and commonsense way of finding out how to get to a post office, how to fill out an income tax form, what is the price of an item we wish to buy, and a hundred other things we need to know? It seems eminently logical, then, that when a learner asks a question, the knower ought to respond with whatever knowledge s/he has to offer, and this should hold true for any kind of learning.

TWO DIFFERENT MODELS

To help clarify this issue, it may be necessary to remind oneself from time to time that in the Counseling-Learning approach, a different model is being used which requires a change in orientation both on the part of the knower and of the learner, especially in the first three stages. Confusion can often arise from an unconscious attempt to impose a newer structure that is different in its intrinsic design onto an older one when, in fact, the older one was never designed for it. In these times of energy shortage, the search for alternate sources of energy suggests an analogy. If, for example, one decides to change over from using a fossil fuel to solar energy to heat the home, usually a whole new house is required: the old one is simply not designed for this purpose. At first one may feel a bit strange and out of place in such a house; none of the familiar accoutrements of a fuel furnace, such as radiators, thermostat, and water pipes, however inefficient they might be, are there. A period of adjustment is needed until one becomes secure that the new solar home is probably more efficient than the old one.

Cognizance of a fundamental shift in perspective is at the heart of the issue of learner questions in the teaching-learning relationship. Central to this issue is the difference between problematical learning and inseminational learning. In the former, where learning is put into the context of a series of problems to be solved, the asking of questions is essential to the relationship between learner and knower—indeed, questions dictate the very learning process for without them there would be no exchange between learner and knower. After all, if the knower does not have the answers to the problems, what can be learned? But, in contrast to this, where the teaching-learning relationship is based on the inseminational model, which is the basis of Counseling-Learning, the question-answer interaction does not aid the learning process, any more than an oil furnace adds to the intrinsic efficiency of the solar design, and may even impede it. A new relationship in learning needs to be incorporated.

PROBLEMATICAL LEARNING

To begin with, we will take a look at problematical learning. This is the kind of learning, and often the only kind, with which many people are familiar and comfortable. One of its basic assumptions is that when the learner asks a question, s/he is always seeking information. This assumption, however, can be misleading and self-defeating to the knower and ultimately to the learner as well. Rather than to assume that when the learner asks a question s/he is unqualifiedly seeking information, the knower might more rightly assume that the question is prompted by learner needs that may have nothing to do with the supposed information being sought. These needs would include primarily that of self-assertion, ego-defense, resistance, or methodic doubt, among others. An experienced and sensitive teacher will usually realize that these learner needs are triggered by a feeling of panic, perhaps caused by the seemingly vast distance between the knowledge of the knower and the lack of knowledge of the learner. Because, however, there is no built-in design that can allow for the expression of this feeling, it will often create a counter reaction of panic in the knower—triggering off his/her needs to self-assertion and ego-defense. This is the self-defeating element. With two defensive people facing one another, the relationship becomes one of caution and wariness rather than of openness and trust, resulting in what Curran has popularized as defensive learning.

One of the contributory forces to the above situation is that of the learner being in an observer position which, however, is inherent in the problematical approach. With the problem being posed as something "out there" that needs a solution applied to it, and both learner and knower looking at it from a distance, nothing but an observer mentality is possible (or needed). So long as the distance is maintained and the spotlight remains on the problem "out there", that is, purely intellectualized, the teaching-learning relationship remains superficially smooth. But this stance produces diminishing returns. Depersonalization is the price one pays for unmixed intellectualization and abstraction; unmixed, that is, with emotional and somatic involvement. This condition cannot continue for very long without causing an unconscious wrenching and dichotomizing of the self. Seen this way, the learner question itself can be considered not only as an expression of ego needs, but also as a somewhat desperate attempt to achieve a sense of belonging, of engagement, of whole-person involvement. But since the problematical structure cannot accommodate this, the question becomes an unrequited expression of observer needs that is outside of the reality of what the knower wishes to teach.

An illustration of observer needs is readily seen in sports where a crowd of partisan spectators project their hostility onto the referee whose judgement of a particular play goes against their team. Their hostile reaction probably has nothing to do with the accuracy of the referee's judgement, since most of them are too far away or too unknowledgeable about the rules of the game to make a judgement about the reality of what occurred. Reality is not even the issue here; the issue is the crowd's need of emotional satisfaction and reassurance that their team, and by extension themselves, truly have worth and value. Unless this need is in some way met, destructive action can ensue (such as throwing beer cans at the opposing players, or at the referee himself.)

Faced with an expression of observer need from a learner, the knower will often react defensively in an instinctive way—in the model of a chess player skilled in making the right counter-move. With no conscious ill intention, the knower, like the good chess player, will try to manipulate the question into an area of his/her expertise where s/he is secure. This then becomes an expression of knower needs of self-assertion and ego-defense.

We see the learner question as springing from the observer's need of ego-defense when we remind ourselves that emotions are "word-bound"; that is, the way in which one "feels" a word is usually determined by a past experience around that word. A particular word, therefore, that the knower uses, or the manner in which s/he uses it, can touch off a past emotional experience related to that word. Since the learner (in the first stages) invariably enters into the learning situation in an emotional state, usually of threat and anxiety, and since problematical learning does not provide occasion for the dispersal of that emotion, an outlet must somehow be found. The only acceptable outlet that is available is in the form of asking a question. The question then, instead of being a seemingly innocent release may contain the highest potential for learning. But because the problematical milieu is so lopsidedly intellectualized, there is scant opportunity to capitalize on this moment.

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COUNSELING LEARNING

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INSEMINATIONAL LEARNING

In inseminational learning, questions take the form of a self-quest rather than of self-assertion and ego-defense; that is, the question, instead of being projected "out there" as a way of defending oneself in a threat situation, is taken inside of the self and then externalized in the form of an understanding response to the knower. This constitutes the beginning of communication as well as the "psychizing" process. "Psychizing" of learning means an experiential process in relationship to another by which one learns not merely facts and data "out there", which may or may not be remembered, but rather gets to know the self as a whole new person in relation to those facts and data. Obviously, this is not the same as long-term memory, any more than the fluency with which one speaks his/her native tongue is the result of long-term memory. In fact, one might say the best illustration of "psychized" learning is one's own native language. This is something that a computer cannot do, although it has excellent long-term memory.

KNOWER NON-EXISTENCE

Inseminational learning allows for the interplay of emotions and sees them as an integral aspect of learning. The emotions are part and parcel of the "psychizing" of learning; that is, of getting a "feel" for it as part of the self, rather than being estranged from, or even fearful of it. Since the learner is usually in a state of threat and anxiety in the early stages, s/he may seek to release this threat and anxiety, as we noted, by asking a question. But since, as we also remarked, this moment of release has the highest potential for learning, it must be responded to sensitively and delicately by the knower. If the knower hears the question exclusively as the seeking of information, it will most likely be distorted and the potential for learning remains unrealized. What is the knower to do? This is already provided for by the structure (physical arrangement) of the group in the early stages. The structure itself allows the knower to recede into non-existence, thus diminishing the threat that his/her greater knowledge causes in the learners. By replying directly to a learner question, as would be done in problematical learning, the knower moves into the learner space; but to the extent that the knower does this, s/he pushes the learner into non-existence (in that particular area of learning) and thus the possibility for learning is removed. Instead of this, as in the inseminational model, the knower must be willing to go into non-existence, that is, allow the learner to have all the space:

> Because of the knower's greater knowledge, there exists a distance, or space between himself and the learner. This space is necessary if one person is to learn from another. But if the knower projects himself into that space, allowing no room in it for the learner, he destroys any opportunity for the learner to expand into it. . . . The learner continually moves closer to the "target", the knowledge of the knower, until he reduces the knower to silence or "nonexistence". This is the final goal of learning.

This helps to explain the need on the part of the knower for counseling skills; s/he must be able to accept (go into non-existence) the learner needs and feelings without herself/himself becoming threatened or provoked into the need for self-assertion, for example, by answering a question. S/he needs first to be secure in her/his own "existence" as a knower.

The structure of the group in the learning setting, then, allows the knower to remain non-existent by being a language counselor-knower (in Stages I,II,III; this reverses in Stages IV,V).

VALID QUESTIONS

But, one will ask, what if, in the inseminational model of learning, the learner question does not arise from any need on the part of the learner, such as ego-defense or self assertion, any more than the question of a person who is lost in a strange town and asks directions to the post office arises from such needs. Would it not then be appropriate and beneficial to the learner to answer such a question? To respond to this we need to back away a moment and re-focus the issue. If the knower's aim is merely to avoid answering questions there is no contest. The knower can easily do this, but then the knower-learner exchange becomes a game of tug-of-war, and the knower can always win. More to the point is what the question conveys of the inner self of the learner; if the learner is truly seeking the way to the "post-office", then his asking directions is the equivalent of a self-quest. It suggests an openness and a responsiveness to, and an investment in, the knower rather than threat and distance and the non-engagement of the observer. As long as the former attitude is there, the question is no longer a *question* but a *quest*. The former characterizes problematical learning, the latter inseminational learning. The two represent two distinct models.

In a recent issue of ***Saturday Review***, Carl Tucker states: "Disembodied facts are fool's gold. They are so easy to mistake for true learning." Inseminational learning aims to take these facts and embody them in warm, living, human flesh.

[illegible] TABOO IS TODAY'S [illegible]

by Lorraine Goldman
WATESOL

[illegible] something that was rarely [illegible] openly, but discussed none[illegible] like cancer and psychic illness [illegible] to be, in whispers and in corners; [illegible] such a discussion with the afflicted person was generally avoided, for fear of hurting feelings or causing an unpleasant reaction.

The malady is endemic in Washington, D.C. government agencies: large numbers of employees—especially those in clerical positions—do not speak or write standard English, thereby impairing the adequate functioning of their offices and at the same time limiting themselves to perpetual positions of inferiority on the promotion ladder.

This non-standard form of English is called Black English by linguists. By its users it is called slang, street talk, or broken English. Somehow its use has gotten inextricably bound up with the notion of ethnic identity and racial pride. But those who speak nothing but black English in Washington, where Uncle Sam is the primary employer and the English language is *the* tool of the job world, take little pride in having low-paying jobs because, among other things, they don't speak the language of the marketplace. There is little pride in being poor these days.

But things are changing, and happily so. For a year now, a special oral English course has been offered in several government agencies, designed to provide speakers of black English with the indispensable tool of standard English. Those who take *Up With English* as part of their on-the-job training discover that there is no threat to their identity: what they speak at home is their own business, and by learning how to use the language of the workplace at work, they gain in self-esteem as well as marketability. Pride in self and the increased possibilities of professional upward mobility translate into racial pride as well.

The approach is a combination of ESL and honest, straight-forward explanations of what works and what doesn't work in a government office. The teachers are ESL teachers with experience in adult education. The classes are made up of 10-15 willing students, people who know that their English is an impediment to their economic success but who have been victims of the "whispers in the corner": no one wanted to or could tell them what was wrong and how to fix it, not even through 12 years of public education, and in some cases, through four years of college.

The list of problem areas is small, including primarily word endings (inflections, derivations, and consonant clusters), past and past participle forms, pronouns, and certain problem sounds, like "th". Students learn to listen to other people and themselves. They discuss levels of formality as well as what is considered appropriate in one situation but not in another. This includes regionalisms as well as marketplace and home English.

The course promises a limited number of things. But it produces much. Students begin to type and transcribe better, even though the course offers strictly oral English. They begin to listen to their children and read to them. (They even begin to correct their children's English.) For many, work habits and attitudes begin to change. Supervisors are involved in the training, and this added attention and reinforcement produces very positive results. As the students gain confidence in their self-expression and as others notice how much better they sound, they begin to feel better about themselves. What was once a downward spiral of negativism reverses direction.

The pilot program was at the old Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, and it was there that reporters from The Washington Post and CBS News observed the class. The resultant publicity has brought requests from all over the country to establish similar programs—in schools, universities, and private businesses, as well as in government agencies. Indeed, the problem is not limited to Washington, nor to the federal government. It is a national problem, and one which many people are recognizing as one we must talk about openly, and do something about. For those of us in ESL, this presents a remarkable opportunity . . . to make a contribution and to work.

TRANSITIONING FROM ESL AT THE SECONDARY LEVEL

by Dennis Terdy
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Thousands of secondary school districts throughout the U.S. are being confronted with significant numbers of Limited English Proficient (LEP) students. The first step in providing English instruction is to establish an ESL class. However, the establishment of a TESL program is clearly not the only necessity. Experienced ESL teachers will readily concur that there is a need for a continuation of the ESL curriculum to include a transitional course. This would serve as the link between ESL and the regular English curriculum. Obviously, the struggles, politics, committees etc. for just the establishment of an ESL program often do not allow for the focus on an additional class. Nevertheless, justification for the need is present.

ESL texts at the secondary level often consist of a series of six levels. Besides tiring of the format, ESL students, especially at the intermediate or advanced levels, often require additional supplementary work in the development of reading and writing skills. A "transition" ESL class which considers the LEP student's additional needs and combines them with the traditional freshman-sophomore or junior English curriculum is a wiser choice. The components of this curriculum often consist of an introduction to composition and a general survey of literature and literary types.

The implementation of such a curriculum may be on a semester by semester basis beginning with either literature or composition. On the other hand, it may be an integration of both areas throughout the school year. Either way, elements of both curricula, ESL and regular English, are being combined.

In the literature component of such a course, work in one of the previously mentioned weak areas of ESL texts, reading, should be included. This reading, reading/literature component should include the following:

1) Reading skills development
2) Vocabulary enrichment
3) Reading techniques/content area
4) Survey of literary types—structured or adapted reading if preferred—i.e. poetry, novel, short story, etc.

A focus on reading skills development in conjunction with the literature survey content may include the following: developing individual reading skills in sequencing getting the main idea, and reading from content. Continuing work on vocabulary development is also recommended. This should include not only vocabulary enrichment but also elements of word study (i.e. word origins and prefixes suffixes) (Paulston, 1976, p. 181-2.)

An additional component of the reading skills development is the teaching of reading techniques for study purposes. They include the SQRRR approach (Robinson, 1961) and speed reading techniques which deal with many prereading skills, i.e. noting purpose of reading, content, format, subtitles etc.

The literature survey component should include elements of the short story, poetry, the novel and myths and fables. Many structured readers and adapted versions of classics, if desired, are available for this area of study. Myths and fables are not only very interesting to LEP students but also can lead to discussion topics of cultural issues.

The writing component must focus on the skills the regular English classroom teacher minimally expects of all students. To teach these skills, the writing component of this transition course should contain the additional following elements:

1) controlled composition—on a paragraph level
2) sentence combining activities
3) elements of a traditional grammar program (to know the right words to describe the right things)
4) paragraph development (topic, sentence, etc.)
5) outlining
6) spelling activities (not generated from the study of rules, but from general errors committed on composition)
7) expository writing
8) a survey of the research paper (not necessarily writing a term paper)

Although quite obvious, eliminating simple errors of format in composition writing, simple spelling errors, elementary errors of writing mechanics, (i.e. paragraph indentation) and even the cosmetic appearance of the paper are essential improvements to meet the minimum expectations of the regular English teacher receiving LEP students. These are often included in controlled composition texts. Sentence combining activities, which are also sometimes included, are ones which are proving to be more related to growth in writing proficiency than any others. (Zamel, 1980.) The further adaptation of the writing curriculum should include the elements offered in the regular English curriculum as elements of grammar study, paragraph development, outlining, and procedures of term paper writing. The decision as to whether or not to include a term paper assignment is optional. A possible approach might be to discuss the process of writing the research paper rather than the actual product.

If the implementation of the mentioned reading and writing programs are not a possibility given fiscal constraints within districts, consider including elements of each within the final level of the presently offered ESL classes.

Often because of parallel regular English and ESL curricula at the secondary level, rarely are elements of either integrated into the other. Therefore, it is clearly an educationally desirable approach to include a "transitional" ESL component.

The suggested content of a transitional class will provide not only a more gradual joining of the two curricula, minimize the trauma of that first non-ESL class for the LEP students, but also provide competitive skills which will better insure successful performance of the limited English proficient student outside the ESL curriculum.

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A REVIEW OF ESL COMPREHENSIVE EXAMINATIONS IN M.A. PROGRAMS

by Robert Ochsner
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In the last few years we have become increasingly self-conscious about the TESOL profession. In 1974 the directors of American and British "teacher-preparation programs" were surveyed in order to find what goals and requirements these programs share (Acheson, 1976). At the 1977 and 1978 TESOL National Conventions, special panels were organized to discuss present trends and future developments in the training of English-as-a-Second-Language (ESL) teachers. More recently, Waggoner (1978) has obtained census data regarding the need for ESL courses, and especially the need for better trained ESL teachers. She notes that only three out of ten ESL instructors in this country have taken course work in ESL theory/methods; the other seventy per cent are basically untrained.

If the needs of ESL students are to be well served, we must as a profession promote adequate training for ESL teachers. But to do this we must first know how ESL teachers are trained and then recognize areas of teacher training which can be improved. Of particular concern then is how teachers are trained in graduate ESL programs. To this end Cooper (1978) has reviewed over 200 ESL theses and dissertations written since 1975. His purpose was to identify "topic areas and methodologies" with the goal to highlight where little or no ESL graduate work is now being done.

In this paper I will review 428 Comprehensive Examination (CE) questions used by fourteen graduate ESL programs that require a CE of their M.A. candidates. Russell Campbell gave a preliminary analysis of these CE's at the 1977 TESOL National Convention. My final observations can be added to Campbell's remarks and Cooper's review (cited above).

The M.A. programs in our field vary greatly. Some last for one year or less; others extend for two or more years. Given this variety, the evidence from CE's provides only a general indication of teacher training; furthermore, the subject-areas tested may represent only a limited part of the total M.A. program. Certainly practice-teaching must be considered as an important feature of an M.A. program that cannot be easily inferred from CE questions.

But taken as a whole, the CE's do provide a broad sample of what "well-trained" ESL teachers are expected to know. Thus, the CE's tell us a great deal about what our profession considers to be fundamental training. Equally important, the CE's show areas of possible neglect in our M.A. programs, a point emphasized by Cooper in his review of theses and dissertations.

METHOD

During 1976-1977 I contacted twenty-four schools offering an M.A. in ESL and asked them to forward copies of their CE questions. To assure confidentiality, each school was asked to send "sample" CE questions or old copies. Of the twenty-four programs contacted, sixteen replied. I decided to analyze only the 1975 and 1976 CE's; questions from previous years had not changed significantly during the first half of this decade.

Most CE's had ten or more questions, of which the students were required to answer five. The average time allowed for each question was thirty minutes, and the entire CE lasted approximately four hours. These points should be kept in mind when I discuss the CE's content below.

CLASSIFICATION OF THE COMPREHENSIVE EXAMS

My basic principle in analyzing the CE's was to isolate "question clusters," that is, questions eliciting the students' knowledge of the same basic ESL subject areas. From a total of 428 CE questions, I identified thirteen general subject-areas in ESL (see Chart A). Several schools distinguished first and second language acquisition as different from psycholinguistics, and nearly all schools asked questions that involved both contrastive and error analysis. It is possible to collapse or separate these and other categories on Chart A, but I chose to represent the categories as the schools have listed them.

Of course, not all the questions addressed a single subject-area in ESL. These "Integrative Questions" combine more than two from Chart A. For example, one CE question reads:

> We in the teaching profession are actually doing our students a disservice with the policies of bilingualism and bidialectalism. Furthermore, attempts to make teachers aware of the complex issues in socio- and psycholinguistics vis-à-vis ESL serve only to cause confusion and unnecessarily complicate the ESL teacher's job. Our job is to teach English, not to motivate our students to learn. We simply cannot control factors outside the classroom.
>
> Discuss this statement, making sure to show where you stand. (50 minutes)

I have also included under this heading those questions which allow students to combine in their answers different categories:

> Describe the history of ESL over the last 40 years. (One hour)

Continued on next page

CHART A: Comprehensive Exam Questions (1975-76)

SCHOOLS: / CE QUESTIONS:	Integrative Questions	Language Analysis	Pedagogy	L_1 and L_2 Acquisition	Culture	CA/EA	Testing	Socio-linguistics	Psycho-linguistics	English as 2nd Dialect	Language lab	Bi-lingualism	History of English language
1	✓	✓	✓*	✓		✓*		✓	✓				✓
2	✓*	✓*	✓*	✓			✓*						
3		✓*	✓*		✓		✓*						
4			✓*	✓		✓*							
5	✓	✓*	✓	✓		✓						(✓)	
6	✓*	✓*	✓*	✓*	✓*		✓*		✓			✓	
7	✓	✓*				✓		✓					
8		✓*	✓								✓		
9	✓	✓*	✓						✓				
10		✓*	✓*	✓	✓			✓		✓	✓	✓	
11	✓*	✓*	✓*	✓*		✓	✓*			✓		(✓)	
12	✓	✓*	✓		✓		✓						
13		✓*	✓*	✓	✓						✓		
14		✓*	✓		✓	✓		✓		✓			✓
TOTAL:	8	13	13	8	6	6	5	4	3	3	3	2(4)	2

Key: Asterisk (*) designates theory that is applied to classroom

ESL COMPREHENSIVE EXAMS

Continued from page 9

As Chart A shows, 13 of 14 schools ask questions about Language Analysis (pure and applied linguistics) and about Pedagogy (theory, methods, and materials of teaching). To suggest the range of these CE subject areas, I have listed in Charts B and C (below) the sub-topics that comprise Language Analysis and Pedagogy:

CHART B: Language Analysis

SCHOOLS / CE SUB-TOPICS	Language theory	Classroom application	Syntax	Phonetics	Phonology	Morphology	Semantics
1	✓		✓	✓	✓		✓
2	✓*	✓					
3	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓*		
4							
5	✓*	✓	✓*		✓*		
6	✓*	✓	✓*	✓	✓	✓	
7	✓	✓	✓*	✓		✓	✓
8	✓	✓	✓*		✓		
9	✓*	✓	✓		✓		
10	✓	✓	✓*	✓	✓*	✓	
11	✓*	✓	✓*				
12	✓	✓	✓*		✓*		
13	✓*	✓	✓		✓		
14		✓	✓	✓	✓*		
TOTAL:	12	12	12	11	10	3	2

Key: Asterisk (*) designates theory that is applied to classroom

For Language Analysis (Chart B) there are three main sub-topics: General language theory (12 or 14 schools ask a CE question under this heading); Syntax (12 of 14 schools); and Phonetics/Phonology (11 of 14 for phonetics and 10 of 14 for phonology). Examples of these sub-topics follow:

General language theory: (30 minutes)

In concise form, describe the *method* and *goal(s)* of linguistic analysis. Include in your answer a comparison of the *American structuralist* (e.g., Bloomfield, Gleason, Hockett, Bolinger) and transformational-generative (e.g., Chomsky, Langacker, Fromkin-Rodman) points of view.

Syntax: (30 minutes)

Show how to argue for an underlying *do* in all the following sentences. There should be at least four independent pieces of data.

a) Chomsky wrote *Syntactic Structures*.
b) Nixon resigned over a year ago.
c) Richard swears a lot.
d) Jimmy and George hate each other.
e) Tom kidnapped the heiress.

Phonetics/phonology: (30 minutes)

The *basic* and *most common* method used for "classifying and describing vowels" is said to be not completely adequate. What is this "basic method" (i.e., briefly, how does it work), what is the problem with it, and what solution has been proposed?

In addition to the remaining two subtopics of Chart B (4 or fewer questions per 14 schools), I have included under Language Analysis this item: General classroom application (12 of 14 schools). The reason for including this pedagogical item under Language Analysis is to clearly show the schools which make a connection between the study of language and its application to the classroom. For example:

Student X has been trained only in structural linguistics. Student Y has been trained only in transformational linguistics. Both students have been asked to prepare materials to teach English sentence structure to speakers of other languages.

1) In what ways do you predict their materials will differ from each other?
2) What differences in theory regarding how languages are learned would their materials reveal? (40 minutes)

However, Chart B does not show the relative emphasis each school places on language study versus pedagogical considerations. As a rough generalization, about half the schools emphasize linguistics, while the other half are more concerned with the teacher. A few schools concentrate almost entirely on one or the other extreme. In order to partially display the teacher-oriented schools and those with a linguistic emphasis, I have marked those subjects which co-occur with applications to the classroom. Thus, an asterisk next to a checked item indicates some type of classroom application.

CHART C: Pedagogy

SCHOOLS / CE SUB-TOPICS	(Read, write, speak, hear)	Classroom application	Teaching theory	Vocabulary	Curriculum	Lesson plans	Sequencing	Teacher training	Visual aids
1	✓	✓	✓						
2	✓	✓			✓			✓	
3		✓			✓		✓		
4		✓						✓	
5	✓		✓				✓		
6	✓	✓			✓				
7									
8				✓					
9	✓		✓						
10	✓	✓	✓			✓			
11	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓			
12	✓			✓					✓
13	✓	✓	✓						
14			✓						
TOTAL	9	8	7	3	3	2	2	2	1

The Pedagogy sub-topics listed in Chart C obviously overlap. "Sequencing of lessons/courses" and "Curriculum and materials development" is one example. This redundancy cannot be avoided: I have listed these sub-topics, as I have listed all the other categories in this paper, in a manner that is consistent with the schools' CE wording. This redundant listing does, however, provide an important insight.

The most remarkable feature of Chart C is that these pedagogical topics deal more with theory than with classroom application. For example:

Compare and contrast *any* 2 of the following four approaches to language teaching: (a) Grammar-Translation, (b) Direct Method, (c) Audiolingual Method, and (d) Cognitive-Code Learning. (30 minutes)

Only eight of the fourteen schools (or slightly more than one/half) ask students to "apply" theory:

There is currently considerable emphasis on what is known as "communicative competence." First, describe what is meant by "communicative competence." Mention the names of any persons whom you associate with this concept. Next, in a brief essay, describe exercises, class activities, and assignments that could be used to help students achieve communicative competence. (30 minutes)

This theoretical emphasis can be partially explained by noting that many CE questions assume, but do not explicitly cite, a classroom setting. Also, for some M.A. programs, perhaps the more applied aspects of pedagogy are handled in a practice-teaching requirement. It is also possible that only "experienced" teachers are admitted to some programs. But there remains a possibility that teaching theory is not "applied" in several ESL teacher-training M.A. programs.

About half of the schools ask questions about Contrastive Analysis (CA) and Error Analysis (EA), Testing, and Culture (see Chart A above and Chart D below). It is important to note that Culture is really five separate items: American culture, literature, stylistics, proxemics, and philosophy of language. Considering these items separately, we find that four schools have questions about American culture, while only two have literature questions and only single schools ask questions about either stylistics, proxemics, or the philosophy of language. Moreover, the American culture and literature sub-topics often involve classroom applications.

This same point can be made about CA/EA, although the proportion of "applied" questions is somewhat smaller (i.e., 3 of 6 schools ask pedagogically related questions):

Discuss briefly how a second language teacher might use "contrastive analysis"

Continued on next page

[illegible] EXAMS

Continued from page 10

[illegible] sis" to advantage in his [illegible] his teaching. (30 minutes)

[illegible] perhaps the most applied of [illegible] subject-areas (4 of 5 schools [illegible] this connection):

[illegible] the pedagogical implications of [illegible] ing in EFL classes. (One hour)

CONCLUSION

Chart D below summarizes the number of CE questions per subject area, their relative frequency, and the approximate length of CE questions. This last measure is indicated by the number of typed (8½" X 11") pages that the collected questions add up to.

As Cooper noted in his review of graduate theses and dissertations, there is in ESL teacher training a very strong emphasis on pedagogy (Cooper's "methods, techniques and materials"), but very little emphasis on bilingualism, English as a Second Dialect (ESD), testing, or the use of language laboratories. My review of CE's, especially the figures of Chart D, bears out Cooper's observations.

In addition to Cooper's remarks, I can add that we largely ignore these subject areas: history of the English language, proxemics (kinesics), sociolinguistics (including ESD), and culture. Also, there were no CE questions about English for Specific Purposes, and very few questions about linguistics that covered "new" trends (i.e., generative semantics, pragmatics, daughter-dependency grammar, etc.). Of course, after four years it is easy to overuse hindsight.

CHART D:

Summary of Comprehensive Exams

CE Topic:	# of CE Questions	Frequency	# of Pages
Language Analysis	160	37%	35
Pedagogy	130	30%	25
CA/EA	38	9%	4
Culture:	24	6%	4
American culture	(10)	(2%)	(1)
Proxemics	(8)	(2%)	(2)
Stylistics	(3)	(1%)	(½)
Literature	(2)	(½%)	(¼)
Philosophy of language	(1)	(¼%)	(¼)
L_1 and L_2 Acquisition	19	4%	2
Integrative Questions	16	4%	1½
Sociolinguistics	10	2%	3
Testing	10	2%	1½
Psycholinguistics	7	2%	1
Bilingualism	4	1%	½
History of English language	4	1%	½
English-as-a-Second-Dialect	3	1%	¼
Language Labs	3	1%	¼
TOTALS:	428		78½

However, this review of CE's does make clear two points. Although Cooper found rather few theses and dissertations that dealt with linguistics, my review of CE's shows that linguistics comprises an apparently large part of the ESL teacher-training programs. Furthermore, these schools' programs are, in most cases, rather evenly divided between language analysis and pedagogy.

But some schools obviously emphasize certain subject areas in their CE questions, and schools differ markedly in how they apply linguistic and teaching theory. Having noted these differences we can now ask what kind of preparation best serves ESL teachers. Much worthwhile research can be directed towards answering that question.

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AN EXTFP REVISITED--TEN YEARS LATER

Ray Past
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"Do you realize it was ten years ago that . . . ?" A frequent kind of question for whatever it was, for ten is a nice round number and a decade is a time span that impresses itself upon us. Also, ten years is far enough back so that we can look at things in perspective. Some things that seemed triumphs, or disasters, at the time are now seen not to have been so earth-shaking, either way. Others hold up pretty well. The vantage point of ten years is a nice place to make judgments from.

Reflections of this sort crowded upon me when I became aware that this summer is the tenth anniversary of the conclusion of an Experienced Teacher Fellowship Program held on this campus from Sept. 15, 1969, to Aug. 28, 1970. The Program had 20 Fellows, a top-notch faculty, and for director: me. It was one of the high points in what is stretching into a longish career.

Since the program was federally-funded there was naturally a bit of federal red tape, including a Director's Final Report which I last week dug up and re-read. On the very first page I ran into this:

> The purpose of the program was to send into the schools of El Paso County a cadre of experienced bilingual teachers with master's degrees in English or in Education who would not only be capable of dealing effectively with the vital problems of teaching the underprivileged child for whom English is not the native language but who would be able to guide, lead, assist and inspire their fellow teachers. . . .
>
> It will be seen that a program with a purpose such as stated above is a long-range proposition. It is hardly the kind that will delight the computer soul of the educational statistician. A final verdict on the program's effectiveness will come years in the future when it is possible to observe the Fellows' accomplishments, their impact on the schools.

Well, okay. As I was saying, here we are ten years later, and it would seem not too soon to take a look, at least a preliminary look, at the Program's results to date. How much bang did Uncle get for his bucks? Was the money well spent? Or was the then-new Nixon administration wise in wiping out this kind of teacher-training program and diverting the dollars to other uses? Maybe more to the point: would it be a good idea to dribble a bit of federal money into similar programs today to try to help with some of the problems of the 80's?

First, let me quickly sketch a few details about the EXTFP, as we always called it, so it will be more clear what kind of program we are talking about. The Fellows were six men and fourteen women, all practicing teachers but tending to be young. We had originally proposed 30 Fellows, but USOE cut it back to 20, which I thought then, and still think, was a mistake. We had no intention of achieving any special sort of "demographic mix" (USOE term) though we had stipulated that anyone accepted into the program had to be bilingual in English and Spanish. This was a language qualification, not an ethnic one, but the upshot was that of our twenty Fellows, 18 were Mexican-Americans, and all 20 were residents of El Paso. As I wrote at the time: "Though there is much to be said for the scattergun technique, welcoming participants from all points, there is also much to be said for concentrating efforts all on one area, especially if it is an area where the need is critical." We chose the latter course.

Among the courses included in the Fellows' 42-hour program (no thesis) were such as: Sociology of the Spanish-Speaking Southwest; Contrastive English-Spanish Linguistics; The Structure of English; The Structure of Spanish; The Literary History of Spain; The Literary History of Mexico; Studies in Folklore; Dialects of American English and American Spanish; The History of the English Language; ESL Methodology; etc. One significant feature of the Program probably differed from what was being done in similar programs elsewhere: of the 12 courses the Fellows took on campus, five were taught in Spanish. On a final questionnaire in which the Fellows were requested to evaluate the Program they were asked, "What importance do you attach to the emphasis given to Spanish in this Program?" Herewith three typical responses:

> (1) The combination of English and Spanish is a tremendous one-two punch which must be retained in any future efforts. It is the combination that makes this program especially pertinent considering the situation that teachers in areas like ours must deal with and function in.
>
> (2) The Spanish emphasis was one of the most significant requirements of the program. The emphasis has provided me with an opportunity to learn and use Spanish. The courses have been most difficult because of a lack of prior study of the language. I have a more confident attitude in the use of Spanish.
>
> (3) I felt it was very important. My Spanish was very weak and I really had no idea of the richness and beauty of my ancestors' language. My Spanish has improved and I have lost my self-consciousness. The ability to speak Spanish fluently will be a great asset in working with the parents of my pupils. My knowledge of the language will indicate to the children and their parents that Spanish is not a language to be ashamed of at all.

It is striking that although the authors of these statements are all Southwestern *native speakers* of Spanish, their comments reveal that they believed they did not really "know" their own language, that they felt they had become more "confident" in using their own native tongue, that they no longer felt "ashamed" in using Spanish. Such comments, common from the Fellows, indicate much that is tragic about education in our Southwest, and at which the Program was in part aimed.

There was one development that deserves special mention: Some of the leaders of the group decided to create a professional bilingual teachers' association and to affiliate with the national organization in the field that seemed to come closest to having the same objectives, which turned out to be TESOL. We approached TESOL with a request for affiliation as the "West Texas" branch of that organization, but at that time TESOL would not subdivide states, not even Texas! so we had to settle for becoming *the* "Texas TESOL." Later international TESOL changed its mind, and now TEXTESOLs are proliferating all over the state, but TEXTESOL-I is here in El Paso, a monument to the professionalism of the Fellows of EXTFP.

What has happened to these people in the ten years since their graduation? What are they doing now? In an effort to find out I wrote to each one, asking for a reply. I didn't send any sort of questionnaire—the world is tired of questionnaires—but just flat out asked for a letter informing me of what they're doing today, what effect they estimate the EXTFP had on their careers, and what, if anything, they know of the whereabouts and the doings of any of their colleagues. Eight replied: nice, and of them, some were long, newsy letters. That's not a bad percentage response, especially when we consider that it ought to be figured as eight out of 18, not 20. One woman has completely dropped from sight, and all efforts at reaching her are unavailing. Another, after four or five years as an outstanding ESL teacher in the community college, tired of the classroom and went into business.

Of the remaining 18, all are in one way or another directly using what they acquired ten years ago, 17 of them in education. The remaining one is serving the federal government in the area of equal opportunity in civilian and military programs—an area not aimed at by the EXTFP, of course, but not all that far afield, either, considering the emphasis given the sociology of minority groups, etc. Eighteen out of 20 still in the field would work out to 90%, according to my pocket calculator, and that's pretty good odds.

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EXTFP: 10 YEARS LATER

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So, how are they doing?

One man wrote me that before the EXTFP experience he had been considering leaving education altogether. "However, my involvement with the Fellows and professors not only convinced me that I should stay in the field of education, but also encouraged me to continue my studies toward a Ph.D." He did take his doctorate, and for a time thereafter served on a university graduate faculty as a trainer of teachers in bilingual education. He left the university for work in the Southwest Educational Development Laboratory in Austin, Texas, where he has developed teacher-training materials, conducted a national study on cognitive styles of minority students, and trained teachers and project directors of bilingual education programs. Currently he is directing a longitudinal study on the teaching of reading to bilingual children. The lab's work, of which he is a vital part, has been presented at major national conferences, i.e., NABE, AERA, NCTE, etc., and implications from the research done at the Lab could have a bearing on educational policy at the local, state, and national levels; instructional methodologies for bilingual children; and program evaluation and teacher training.

One of the women Fellows has risen in the hierarchy of the El Paso Public School system to the rank of Associate Area Superintendent, in which she now has been serving several years and in two different areas. (I should explain that the System, which serves some 63,000 students, 65% of them of Hispanic background, is headed by a Superintendent who has three Associate Superintendents, each of them his lieutenant in charge of a geographical area of the city.) Thus she has been in a most influential position to help guide and direct the school system as it has developed—and is developing—into what is widely recognized (if not always in El Paso) as one of the nation's best bilingual programs. No El Paso educator would dream of saying that the local system has solved all the problems, and it is constantly subject to examination, alteration, abandonment of some facets and intensification of others—and above all, expansion. (*All* of the city's elementary schools are now participating in it, regardless of the ethnic composition of their student population, but expansion is occurring up through the grade levels.) In spite of this constant flux, and in spite of heated "anti" letters to newspaper, letter to the editor' columns by some of the local neanderthals, test data unequivocably, and unemotionally, prove that the program is an ever-increasing success. And our one-time Fellow has played and is playing a key part in it all.

Today's social climate being what it is, the federal government is inevitably going to be heavily involved in any large public school bilingual education program, accepting and funding proposals, forcing evaluations, approving, critiquing, giving, denying, etc. etc. And guess who is the school system's Director of Federal Programs? Right! Another of our former Fellows. He has, of course, been a powerful factor in shaping the way the local schools have developed over the last decade, most especially in reference to the bilingual education programs. For it is largely he who has determined the shape of proposals submitted for funding, and largely he who must periodically assess them. Also, anxious for the programs' smooth and successful functioning he has been an active missionary to the benighted, explaining, justifying, converting. Of the EXTFP he writes, "Without it I would still be in the classroom teaching; and even though it is a wonderful place to be, for me it would have meant that I never got a chance to make some contributions that I was capable of making."

Still another Fellow exited from the EXTFP to go into university-level ESL teaching in Puerto Rico, but he soon left that and got involved in working with agencies of the federal government in the area of minority group problems. He is presently with the Department of the Navy and [illegible]esponsible for policy and guidance formulation for all Navy civilian and military EEO programs. He says that the MA he earned in the EXTFP opened the door to his employment with the federal government and that "because of the extensive course content in the EXTFP dealing with the Hispanic culture, I possess a basic sociological and anthropological foundation in that culture which has been invaluable in conducting awareness seminars for private and public managers." Well, of course the EXTFP was not aimed at creating bureaucrats, however beneficial, but as we often observe of our society, we don't *dictate* what a person must do—and a useful, productive member of the society is a net plus whatever the character of the plot he is tilling.

Another former Fellow has become a trend breaker in that she is the first, and only, female high school assistant principal in charge of discipline in El Paso, and reports reach me that her school is relatively a sea of calm in these turbulent days at the secondary level. If you wonder what possible relation the EXTFP program has to a position such as hers, do remember that 65% figure regarding the Hispanic population of our schools.

Since those I have cited so far all seem to be administrators, you might wonder whether anyone stayed in actual teaching. Indeed some did. One of the Fellows, in answering my query as to what they might know about each other's careers, wrote:

> Except for the one or two female Fellows who may stay home with children from time to time, all are still actively making themselves felt in the field of education or a closely related area. Twelve of us are still teaching, many in the bilingual education area. Eight of us are administrators of one sort or another with varying levels of responsibility.

One of the women who is still in the classroom has several times turned down offers to be an elementary school principal on the grounds that her own children are still too young for her to over-extend in terms of time and responsibility. She writes, ". . . today I am a highly-specialized and qualified component of the bilingual program, as I can teach in either English or Spanish or both." Attempting to sum up what she knows of the careers of those who were in the EXTFP:

> It made it possible for its participants to get ahead as: an assistant superintendent of schools, a high school assistant principal, an elementary principal, elementary as well as high school counselors, a ranking official with the Navy Department, a federal grants official for the schools, a political action leader, an ESL Supervisor, and numerous certified bilingual elementary school teachers, as well as Language Arts English and Language Arts Spanish teachers.

Another of the Fellows is today a power in the schools' Department of Curriculum and Staff Development, a position from which he exerts considerable influence on the schools' course of development, particularly in regard to the bilingual education program. Of the EXTFP he says "It came at the right time, the right place, and for all the right reasons." He recalls all the activism of those days ("and those bereted retards, the Brown Berets . . .") and says of himself and the Fellows, "The school board had to conclude that we would be the 'acceptable alternative' to the foul-mouthed Brown Horde, and our promotions were accelerated." Another Fellow, touching on the same theme, points out that during the very height of the activism uproar the Fellows were more or less sequestered away at the University. He writes:

> While we were learning how to become part of the solution rather than part of the problem, El Paso was experiencing failure and frustration in dealing with the very problem we were studying. For us, the Fellows, El Paso provided an experience more akin to on-the-job training than the "practicum" implied. No artificial or simulation exercises had to be devised for us. We had the benefit of the real thing to work in and on in order to acquire the master's degrees

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we sought. Furthermore, because we were students and well managed, we were able to acquire all the experiences required or desired without being stigmatized by our participation in those activities.

Uniformly, the Fellows, looking back over the decade since the EXTFP, pronounce the Program a "success," thinking not only of their own individual careers but specifically of what they know of the others'. They attribute the success to different factors: some of them quite candidly cite the excellence of the group (correctly, in my judgment); others point to the quality of the program; and as we just noted, some cite timing as of critical importance. One writes, "Possibly the greatest factor was luck, for only luck could have gotten together, and in one place, twenty above-average graduate students. . . ."

The Program had some other incidental benefits. It fostered an unprecedented cooperation, for instance, between the Departments of Modern Languages and English at the University, and was at least in part responsible for the eventual establishment of a Department of Linguistics, which still works closely with both Modern Languages and English.

All in all, ten years later the Program has to be viewed as having had an impact on education in this area. Perhaps a greater impact than was visualized or even hoped for at the time. And ten years is still only ten years: the Fellows have by no means reached the peaks of their careers but are just becoming solidly established. Another assessment after another ten years will surely be more impressive.

In the meantime, not all the problems are solved, neither here in El Paso nor elsewhere, at least as I read the news. I would suggest to the new Department of Education, or to anyone who will listen, that an approach that worked so well once might not be too bad an idea to try again, and at a number of places around the country. Lord knows we not only have the problems but we also have talented, bright, eager young teachers trying to come to grips with them. Why not pick some of the best and strengthen their hands? I have seen tax money spent worse. Haven't you?

TESOL
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TREATING MENTAL ILLNESS IN THE ETHNIC COMMUNITY

by Sarah Henry

The Portuguese woman was brought to Toronto Western Hospital suffering what appeared to be a serious mental illness. She would tightly clasp her hands in an attitude of prayer for hours on end. And she had told her family she could communicate directly with Jesus Christ.

A Canadian-trained psychiatrist might have diagnosed her condition as schizophrenia. The religious mania, occasional catatonia, and poor links with reality all suggested an emotional disturbance that would require extensive treatment.

But U of T psychiatry professor Dr. Frederico Allodi, director of the Western's transcultural psychiatric unit recognized she was suffering from a reactive delusional psychosis, a condition rarely diagnosed in North America, but quite common among patients from Third World countries and rural European backgrounds. Within a few days of drug therapy, the woman's symptoms had lifted.

Dr. Allodi is in a unique position to treat Toronto's ethnic community. A native of Spain, he speaks five languages. And the U of T transcultural psychiatric unit is located in an area where 45 percent of the residents speak no English.

The psychiatrist tells the story of the Portuguese woman to illustrate that although the causes of mental illness are fairly universal, "the content"—the form the disturbance takes—can vary considerably among different cultures. A Canadian-born patient experiencing the same stresses as this woman, for example, might have suffered extreme depression, perhaps have attempted suicide, and probably have felt anxiety about health and body functions, he says.

Over the past three years, close to 900 patients, half of whom don't speak English, have found their way to the Western's transcultural psychiatric unit. In addition to the linguistic barriers and the possibility of being diagnosed by North American psychiatrists, these patients, most of whom are from Italy, Portugal and Latin America, face higher than average risk of becoming mentally ill because of the pressures of adjusting to life in Canada.

"The roots of psychiatric problems are multi-factorial, involving money, family, as well as the mental illness," says Dr. Allodi. "But because of the stresses of living in Canada and because of their status as immigrants and minority ethnic groups, these people have special needs."

It is these special needs that the transcultural psychiatric unit was set up to serve. At the weekly clinics, Dr. Allodi and a part-time public health nurse, the only professional staff members, must take on the roles of priest, social worker and community resources expert, as well as their jobs as doctor and nurse. Many of these immigrant patients have received psychiatric treatment in the past.

Yet conversely, because of the sense of belonging within ethnic communities, chances for recovery are perhaps better than for native-born Canadians.

"Illness is not viewed entirely as an individual matter," says Dr. Allodi. "It is conceptualized in terms of the family because it affects everyone."

Treatment, like the illness itself, is also a family affair. "When they first come to the office it is often difficult to know from their behavior which is the ill person. The patient may be a sick man, but it is often his wife who is showing the signs of hysteria." Therapy, in such instances, aims at separating the people involved to give them more emotional autonomy. "The ego is the major controlling force of the psyche. But within these families, the ego is amorphous and fused," says the psychiatrist.

About 55 percent of the Toronto population was born outside Canada, yet students and established professionals are still not being adequately trained to treat immigrant patients or to plug into the existing network of services set up for residents from ethnic minorities, he says.

(Excerpted from the *Toronto Bulletin* Vol. 34, No. 1, July 14, 1980)

PROCEDURES FOR IDENTIFICATION AND ASSESSMENT OF STUDENTS FOR POSSIBLE INCLUSION IN A COMPREHENSIVE LAU EDUCATION PROGRAM

by Phillip Roth
Indiana Dept. of Public Instruction

The tremendous influx of refugees (Indochinese, Soviet Jews, Cubans, and Haitians) into American communities in the past five years has caused public schools across the nation to look at civil rights legislation more closely than ever before. The reason for such scrutiny is that the Office of Civil Rights (OCR) is reviewing policies and practices of school systems to assure that limited English proficiency (LEP) students are not foreclosed from equal educational opportunities because of a lack of English language skills. Whether they do so voluntarily or in response to court orders or to citations by OCR, school administrators must develop and implement educational programs which are consistent with the requirements of such legislation as Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964; Title IV of that Act (as amended in 1974); Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 (sex equity); and Public Law 94-142, which addresses, in part, provisions for LEP students who are handicapped. In addition, school districts which are currently receiving funds under the Emergency School Aid Act, or districts which are applying for such funding, must now submit and implement a comprehensive educational plan for LEP students.

Considering the multitude of legislation and attending regulations with which school administrations must comply, it is little wonder that school systems are confused as to how to satisfy all the requirements beset upon them in one educational program. While an instructional program which meets all of the requirements mandated in the legislation mentioned above is possible to design and implement, it is premature to discuss such a program without first considering two important questions: which students in a school district should be enrolled in the program, and what are the unique needs of those students which such a program would presumably address? This paper, therefore, will discuss a procedure to 1) identify students who have potential limited English language abilities and 2) assess their particular educational needs (i.e., English and/or native language instruction and any possible special education needs). Information gathered as a result of following this procedure will help school personnel to make appropriate decisions about the kind(s) of instructional program(s) to implement and thereby satisfy civil rights requirements and (more importantly) meet the needs of the identified students by providing them equal educational opportunities.

Before beginning the discussion of the identification and assessment procedure, the reader should be aware of the specific protection of rights, as embodied in Title VI, which is the genesis of this identification and assessment procedure and subsequent educational programs designed as a result of this process. Title VI provides that:

> "No person in the United States shall, on the basis of race, color, or *national origin*, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under *any program or activity receiving federal financial assistance*.
> (emphasis added)

Substance was given to this protection of rights in a memorandum issued by HEW on May 25, 1970, regarding children of national origin minority groups with limited English language skills. The memorandum was issued in response to findings by OCR that a disproportionate number of students whose primary or home language was other than English were not receiving special assistance in many schools around the country. It requires that:

> "1. No student be excluded from effective participation in school because of inability to speak and understand the language of instruction.
>
> 2. No student be misassigned to classes for the mentally retarded by reason of his/her lack of English skills.
>
> 3. Programs for such a student be designed to meet his/her language skill needs and not operate as a dead-end track.
>
> 4. Parents whose English is limited receive notices and other information from the school in a language they can understand."[1]

With this in mind then, the discussion will focus on the identification and assessment procedure. The reader will notice as each step of this process is described that references are frequently made to OCR requirements to assure that the suggestions here are consistent with Title VI and related regulations and guidelines.

Step 1. Identification of the Student's Primary and/or Home Language.

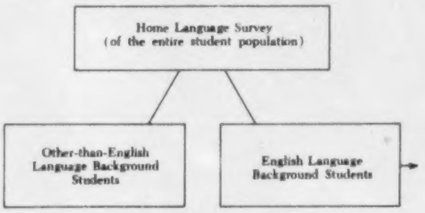
An essential first step for the school district is to accurately identify *all* students whose primary or home language is other than English. The reasons for identifying students in this way are 1) to make certain that *all* national origin minority group students who potentially have limited English language proficiency have their language proficiency and academic progress assessed and 2) to determine which students are national origin minority group students for the purposes of Lau compliance. Moreover, taking this step as an initial activity in the identification and assessment process assures that the school district will not make the same mistake that other districts have made, as reported by OCR in January, 1975.[2] Among the most common violations cited by OCR was the practice by school districts not accurately identifying all students with a primary or home language other than English. If a school system is unable to accurately identify its students, it necessarily follows that the school district will not be able to assess the language proficiencies of its students.

Identifying a student as having a primary or home language other than English does not mean that the student necessarily has limited English language proficiency, or that (s)he is underachieving. These can only be determined after the student's language proficiency and academic progress are assessed.

A good way to determine the primary or home language of students is to use a home language survey which elicits at least the following information:

1. the language first acquired (learned) by the student;
2. the language most often used in the home; and
3. the language most often spoken by the student.

Results of the survey will produce two groups of students as indicated below:


Home Language Survey
(of the entire student population)
Other-than-English Language Background Students
English Language Background Students

Notice that the diagram above indicates administration of the home language survey to the entire student population. Some school districts rely only on student surnames as a short-cut method to identify students having a primary or home language other than English. Student surnames may give the district some general idea of the numbers of such students, but the surname of an individual will not necessarily indicate what language is most often used in the home. This practice, therefore, is not advised in the identification process.

Notice in the diagram above that those students determined by the home language survey as coming from an English language background are immediately dismissed from further consideration in the identification process. The general education program, it is assumed, is already designed for these students. We are concerned about those students who, because of their lack of English language abilities, cannot progress through the general education pro-

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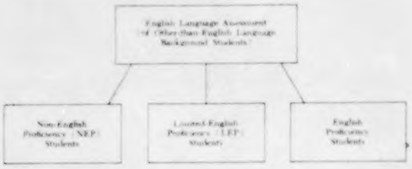
gram in a manner commensurate with their English proficient peers.

Step 2. English Language Assessment

The assessment of English skills is important here to refine the group of students identified as Other-than-English Language Background Students. Furthermore, making this assessment will help the school district to avoid committing another violation which has been cited by OCR: failure to assess adequately the language proficiency of LEP students.[2] If a school system cannot adequately assess the language skills of these students, it cannot prescribe a program specifically designed to meet their needs and to rectify their English language deficiency.

Various English language tests can be used to determine which students are limited English proficient and which are not. (This paper will not discuss the various English language instruments which can be used; it is concerned only with the identification and assessment procedure.) The figure below indicates the groups of students generated by this assessment:


English Language Assessment
(of Other-than-English Language
Background Students)
Non-English
Proficiency (NEP)
Students
Limited-English
Proficiency (LEP)
Students
English
Proficiency
Students

The determination as to whether a student is Non-English Proficiency (NEP) or Limited-English Proficiency (LEP) can easily be made during this assessment by following the definitions of language categories as described in the Lau Remedies:

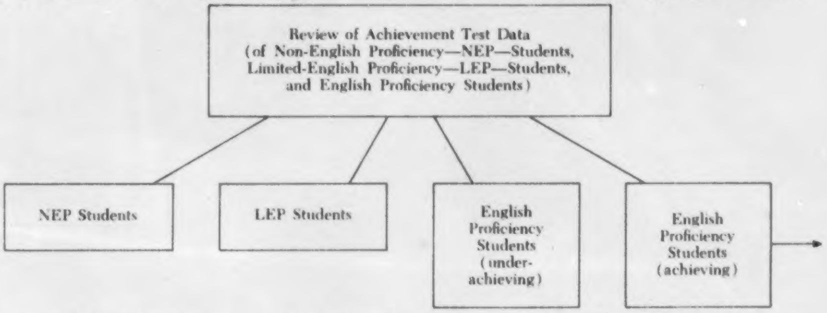
> "Category A—Monolingual in a language other than English.
> Category B—Predominate speaker of the language other than English.
> Category C—Bilingual, i.e., has equal facility in English and the other language.
> Category D—Predominate speaker of English though knows some of the language other than English.
> Category E—Monolingual in English, speaks no other language."[3]

Those students classified in Category A are considered to be NEP students. Those classified B and possibly some in Category C (since they may be equally dysfunctional in both languages) are considered to be LEP students. The reader is cautioned against assigning students into language categories at this point. That will be done later in the process. The reference to the Lau language categories here is only for the purpose of distinguishing between NEP and LEP students. The reason for this distinction will become apparent later.

Some program planners dismiss the English Proficiency Students at this point. As you will see below, there are some important reasons for continuing to consider these students.

Step 3. Review of Achievement Test Data

When planning an appropriate instructional program which will serve as many qualified students as possible, it is not enough to use English language abilities as the sole criterion. Achievement test data give some insight into problems encountered by students who come from an other-than-English language background but who are proficient in English. Some of these students may be underachieving for reasons other than language differences. The figure below indicates the groups of students defined by this step:


Review of Achievement Test Data
(of Non-English Proficiency—NEP—Students,
Limited-English Proficiency—LEP—Students,
and English Proficiency Students)
NEP Students
LEP Students
English
Proficiency
Students
(under-
achieving)
English
Proficiency
Students
(achieving)

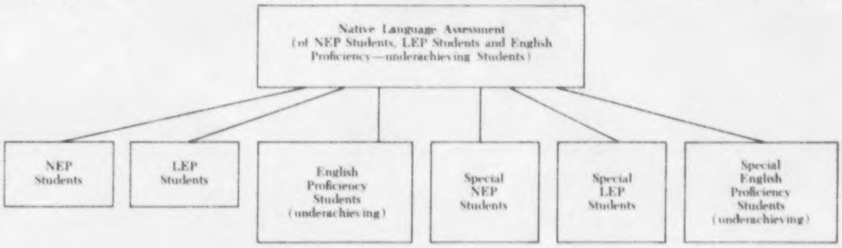
Implementing this step, the school district will avoid committing yet another violation often cited by OCR: improper placement of LEP students into classes for the mentally retarded.[3] Many times this violation occurs because school systems use tests and procedures which rely exclusively on English language abilities to assess and place students. Following the above step helps the school district to comply with the Lau Remedies, which state that:

> "Students having a primary or home language other than English who are underachieving must be provided remedial programs, regardless of whether they have limited English abilities. Underachievement is defined in the Lau Remedies as performing at one or more standard deviations below the mean score for non-minority students."[3]

Referring to the figure above, notice that those students identified as English Proficiency Students who are achieving at grade level are dismissed from further consideration at this point. The process is concerned only with the three groups of students which are underachieving: NEP Students, LEP Students, and the English Proficiency Students who are not working at grade level.

Step 4. Native Language Assessment

This step examines a very critical albeit often neglected area of the identification and assessment process. Information concerning the level of native language development of students identified up to this point as NEP, LEP, or English Proficiency (underachieving) may give some insight—especially when compared with English Language Assessment and achievement data—into such learning problems as speech problems, mental retardation, other learning disorders, and emotional disturbances. When such learning problems are suspected, further diagnosis via appropriate instruments and procedures is necessary to assure proper placement into appropriate programs. The figure below shows the possible groups identified by this assessment:


Native Language Assessment
(of NEP Students, LEP Students and English
Proficiency—underachieving Students)
NEP
Students
LEP
Students
English
Proficiency
Students
(underachieving)
Special
NEP
Students
Special
LEP
Students
Special
English
Proficiency
Students
(underachieving)

Notice that for each of the three groups of students identified as underachieving in Step 3 there is a counterpart identified as "special." Making provisions for the appropriate assessment and subsequent placement of students who may need special education services, regardless of their English language proficiency, is consistent with the requirements of Public Law 94-142.

Reasons for considering the NEP and LEP students and all of those students identified as "special" for inclusion in a comprehensive Lau education program are rather clear. What may not be so obvious is the rationale for continuing to consider the English Proficiency (underachieving) students who do not need special education services. In many

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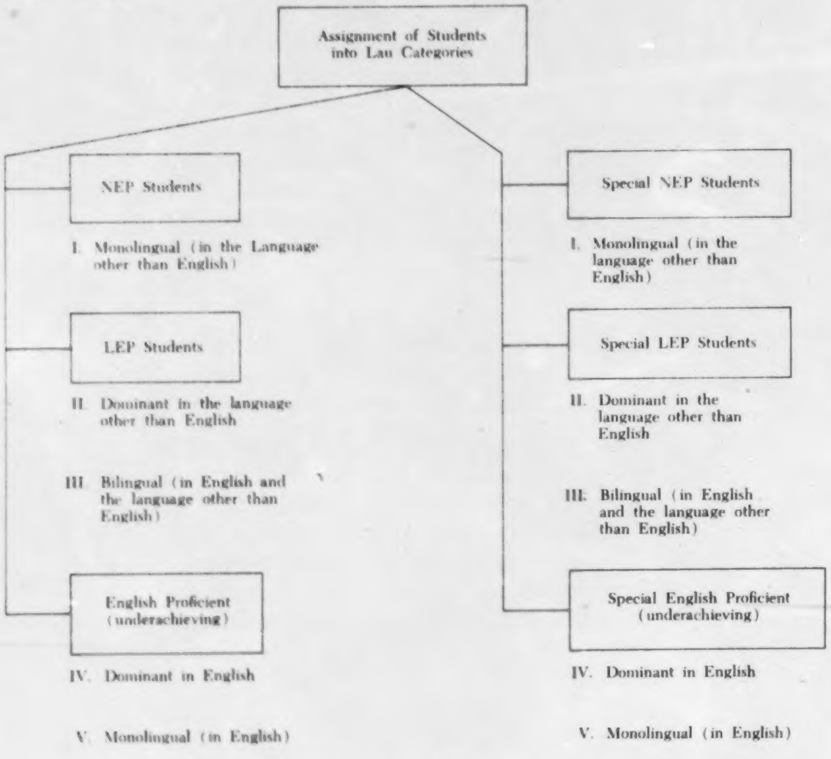
school systems, these students are underachieving not so much because of language differences, but because of cultural differences. The work of Dr. Jose Cardenas and Dr. Blandina Cardenas suggests that incompatibilities between the student's cultural characteristics and those of the dominant society represented by the school result in the student's low self-concept especially when the school makes unrealistic expectations of him/her.[4] Including these students in a program where there is an understanding of these and other factors which affect learning, provides the students with opportunities to succeed in a manner commensurate with their Anglo peers.

Step 5. Assignment of Students into Lau Categories

The final step of the identification and assessment process involves the assignment of the students identified in the previous four steps into Lau Language Categories. The purpose of these categories is to plan appropriate instructional programs to meet the specific needs of students identified in each group at the inception of a comprehensive Lau program. It should be noted that the groups identified below are not intended to be used for tracking purposes. It is quite feasible that students will move from one group to another as they develop language (English and/or native language) and conceptual skills. The figure below indicates the possible groups of students identified by this step who could (should) be included in a comprehensive Lau education program:


Assignment of Students into Lau Categories
NEP Students
I. Monolingual (in the Language other than English)
LEP Students
II. Dominant in the language other than English
III. Bilingual (in English and the language other than English)
English Proficient (underachieving)
IV. Dominant in English
V. Monolingual (in English)
Special NEP Students
I. Monolingual (in the language other than English)
Special LEP Students
II. Dominant in the language other than English
III. Bilingual (in English and the language other than English)
Special English Proficient (underachieving)
IV. Dominant in English
V. Monolingual (in English)

With the administration of Step 5 above the identification and assessment process is complete. The information gathered from the steps described above should provide school administrators with enough data to make educationally sound decisions about the appropriate type(s) of instructional program(s) to implement—one(s) that will effectively meet the needs of students identified through the process just described.

It is not the purpose of this paper to prescribe specific programs for particular populations of students. Such decisions can be made by reviewing the descriptions of program designs in *A Guide to the Selection of Bilingual Education Program Designs* by Ned Seelye and Billie Navarro. Published by the Bilingual Education Service Center, Arlington Heights, Illinois, supported by the Illinois Office of Education, 1977.

REFERENCES

1. Memorandum to "School Districts with More Than Five Percent National Origin—Minority Group Children" from J. Stanley Pottinger, Director of the Office for Civil Rights, May 25, 1970.

2. In January, 1975, OCR identified 334 school districts which, on the basis of information supplied in the HEW 101 and 102 Forms, were found to have disproportionate numbers of students whose primary or home language was other than English and who were not receiving special assistance. These districts were required to complete and return an investigative questionnaire (OS/CR 53-74) intended to assist in the effort to determine whether the districts were in violation of *Lau v. Nichols*.

3. "Remedies Available for Eliminating Past Educational Practices Ruled Unlawful Under *Lau v. Nichols*", Summer, 1975.

4. Cardenas, Jose A. and Blandina Cardenas. *The Theory of Incompatibilities*. San Antonio, Texas: The Intercultural Development Research Association, 1977.

IT WORKS

Edited by Darlene Larson
New York University

CHANGING SPEECH TO WRITING IN THE LANGUAGE LAB

Thelma L. Borodkin
Lehman College-CUNY

As the preference for strict audio-lingual methods has decreased, the popularity of the language lab has also diminished. At my school, for example, the hours planned for work in the language lab have been eliminated from all the ESL courses. I believe, however, that this valuable learning resource can be utilized in ways which will help students to develop their cognitive and affective faculties in addition to their linguistic proficiency.

The procedure I want to share with you here is based on a number of assumptions and goals. a.) I want to show students the relationship between the spoken and written forms of the language. b.) I want to accept, validate, and acknowledge things which the students already know as native speakers of English or as students of English as a second language. This procedure helps students put their oral expressions of ideas on paper. c.) For most of these students, reading and writing have not been successful, and therefore enjoyable, learning experiences. I try to make the reading of the passage pleasurable by choosing a passage of very high interest and reading to the students while they have a copy in front of them. d.) People like to tell stories and I give them an opportunity to do exactly that. For SESD students, telling a story employs the form they know best—speaking. For ESL students, it is the form in which they most need real life practice. e.) Main ideas needed for effective paragraphs are first expressed and defended orally in my procedure. Students are then able to transfer them to written form with confidence. f.) I am using the age-old pedagogical adage of going from the known to the unknown. By building on what they know to help them discover what they don't know and need to learn the procedure enables them to become their own teachers.

Procedure:

1. After an introduction and practice in using the equipment, I take them to the language lab.
2. Each student is provided with a copy of the passage to be used. I have found "The Lady and the Tiger" to be a good choice.
3. Students listen through earphones at their booths while I read the story aloud to them from the main console. I sometimes ask questions or make comments about the material just to simulate a real story telling situation, to check comprehension, and to help make it as congenial an experience as possible.
4. At the end, students are instructed to tell the story to a friend who was not there to hear it originally. They speak directly into the tape recorders.
5. Next, they play back and transcribe what they recorded. They examine what they have written to find any forms that are appropriate in speaking but not in writing. For example, incomplete sentences are a regular feature of spoken English but inappropriate for written English.
6. I recommend one or two questions at the end which will enable students to form a thesis statement and defend it. In the story of the lady and the tiger, for example, I ask the students who they think was behind the door and why they think so.

As a result of this kind of practice, students gain cognitive as well as psychological benefits. They produce both narrative and argumentative writing styles widely used in the writing of college work and transferable to other areas as well. Other rhetorical devices would be appropriately employed with other passages and stories. And as students become aware of the significance of the various writing conventions their language proficiency grows. Their ability to select appropriate forms for different purposes is enhanced.

Students have an enjoyable learning experience because they are given an opportunity to show the considerable knowledge that they already have. This psychological satisfaction serves as an impetus to get them *to want to learn* what they *need to learn*. The emphasis on what they do know rather than on what they don't know is further strengthened by the tangible evidence that they can write a paper of some length, a task which has presented great difficulties to them in the past. Furthermore, this method impresses upon them the importance of having information at hand on the topic they choose to write about.

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A number of programs have discontinued using their language laboratories as an integral part of their students' activities. Here is a teacher who has found a way to utilize an existing lab for increased effectiveness. Many other teachers use tape recorders right in the classroom in a variety of ways. Some readers may want to start adding recording activities to their classroom strategies but need advice on the most satisfactory tape recorders for student/classroom use. "*It works*" would like to hear from TESOL members who have found satisfactory recording equipment at economical rates.

"MODELS OF SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION"

Dr. Carlos Yorio, in his speech before TESOL Spain, considered three models of the acquisition process: Krashen's Monitor model (with certain modifications of his own), Selinker's Interlanguage model and a recent model proposed by E. Bialystok.

I. The Monitor Model (Krashen)

A learner acquires what he picks up 'naturally', subconsciously. Immigrants who have picked up a second language without consciously working on rules have *acquired* that language. This is essentially how children learn languages. *Learning*, on the other hand, takes place when the learner is conscious of what he is doing. This may involve studying, but not necessarily. The acquired system is responsible for what comes out automatically, when the learner is not worrying about grammar problem areas like the subject/verb agreement and so on. The learned system, the system of rules that the learner has consciously worked on, monitors or checks the output of the acquired system and produces what Yorio terms "monitored output". It's the acquired system that initiates an utterance for communicative purposes. The Monitor never does. It concentrates on form over communication. The Monitor only functions when there is time to be conscious of rules. It is more likely to be drawn upon in writing than in speech, for example. Learners differ greatly in their use of the Monitor. Monitor over-users are so rule conscious that they can scarcely get anything out. Monitor under-users hardly check anything. Flagrant errors do not necessarily interfere with communication, however. Under-users may be very good communicators. The optimal monitor user *does* monitor, but this doesn't interfere with communication. A very select group of superusers, people who have managed to approach native competence in a second language, communicate well but use the Monitor even more than optimal users. It is interesting that native speakers also monitor such things as can vs. may, as vs. like, and register restrictions.

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MODELS OF SLA

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II. The Bialystok Model

In the Bialystók Model, the learner is exposed to language either consciously (if the teacher gives him a grammar rule) or unconsciously (perhaps seeing several situations where the present perfect is used). To this raw input, he brings not only explicit linguistic knowledge (similar to Krashen's learned system) and implicit linguistic knowledge (similar to Krashen's acquired system) but also "other knowledge". This includes his native language, other languages he knows, knowledge of linguistics and his general experiences of the world. This component helps to account for individual differences in language learning success. Like Krashen, Bialystok believes that acquisition is central to second language learning. As a result of the application of knowledge to language input, different kinds of rules are generalized. Some rules are automatic and spontaneous; others require time, and are used for monitoring. Bialystok's system is interesting because it attempts to account for individual learners' differences. Bialystok suggests that the more different strategies a learner can draw upon, the more successful he will be.

III. The Interlanguage Model (Selinker)

As learners learn a second language, they make systematic errors. They leave off the third person 's', they say "goed" instead of "went", etc. To Larry Selinker, these errors are clues to the learner's learning strategies. They show that learners transfer rules from their native languages and overgeneralize target language rules. The result of the application of these strategies are systems of rules that differ from the learner's native language on the one hand, and from the target language on the other. Selinker calls this "interlanguage". In time, this interlanguage may approximate the target language, though it will probably always remain different in some respects. As a learner becomes more proficient, his use of transfer from the native language decreases, but overgeneralization of target language rules increases. Selinker sees the learner moving from the native language through Interlanguage 1, IL2, IL3 . . . ILn until he reaches his final interlanguage. Learners can backslide, start leaving off final third person 's', etc. *after* having apparently surmounted these errors. Other errors may appear in an early interlanguage and stubbornly refuse to disappear. Such errors are termed as "fossilized" since they persist despite the learner's advancing in other respects.

(Reprinted from the *TESOL Spain Newsletter*, Spring 1980)

TEACHING ESL TO INDOCHINESE REFUGEES: A REPORT FROM TESOL '80

by Donna Bunch
Western Kentucky University

TESOL '80 had many excellent presentations, and those concerning the new Indochinese refugees played to standing room only. John and Mary Ann Boyd from Illinois State University gave a most useful workshop entitled "Working With the Indochinese." Here are some of their ideas and ideology that have proven to be both practical and successful in the new Indochinese Refugee English Program at Western Kentucky University. The information here addresses the semiliterate and literate student; the ideology is applicable to all levels.

1. Emphasize receptive language long before the student is expected to speak.
2. Don't discourage (but don't demand) expressive language which some are ready for before others.
3. Use good student models as soon as possible.
4. Work in groups and pairs often. Allow students to use their native language with one another to clarify teaching points.
5. Introduce lots of nonverbal activities early in the program. Point to things, pass pictures among students, and share materials and ideas.
6. Intentionally give the wrong answer; students will begin to correct you and relax and laugh with one another.
7. Give the students time to write new vocabulary in their notebooks. They have a need to do this, so relax and let them do it even if you are emphasizing aural/oral work.
8. Keep the structures constant as new vocabulary is introduced.
9. Teach the alphabet early. We alphabetize many things such as names in phone directories, records, student files, and multiple choice test questions.
10. Write on the board from left to right, top to bottom, emphasizing the direction of the English writing system.
11. Model correct pronunciation, but give the students lots of language experience before you begin correcting their pronunciation.
12. Use pictures. Find your own in magazines. Laminate them and let every student see and touch each picture. Make such pictures functionally relevant to the particular class: vocational emphasis, home emphasis, etc. Put the pictures on the classroom walls with words printed on separate cards surrounding the pictures. These words can become part of their sight vocabulary.
13. Take words from pictures (#12) and make them part of a vocabulary lesson. Do a cloze exercise, using the words. Include these words in a dictation. Have students generate original sentences with the words.

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TEACHING ESL TO INDOCHINESE

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14. Use strip stories to sequence ideas in English. Have the students stand from left to right, again emphasizing the English writing system. This technique is also good for scrambled dictation. Students may read the strip story from the paper, or they may hear it spoken and remember it that way.

(Reprinted from *Kentucky TESOL*, Vol. I, #4, May 1980.)

SOME FIRST IMPRESSIONS OF EFL TEACHING IN CHINA

Charles T. Scott
University of Wisconsin-Madison

The following remarks summarize my observations of ESL teaching in China—observations made during the course of a month-long (February 1979) visit to the People's Republic as a member of the University of Wisconsin faculty delegation. Our excursions were, I think, nicely apportioned between the expected and the unexpected.

In most instances the teaching of English as a foreign language is carried out within the administrative structure of a department (or institute) of foreign languages, of which English is invariably the language that attracts the largest number of students. This is the case in the departments of foreign languages and literature at Peking University, Nanking University, Hunan University, and Fudan University, where typically these departments are responsible for the teaching of Russian and Japanese in addition to English.

The large enrollments of EFL students is a comparatively recent phenomenon and one that has put a severe strain on teaching staffs. Just a few years ago Russian was the principal second language being taught in China. With the sudden and dramatic shift in enrollments from programs in Russian as a foreign language to EFL, China is faced with an acute shortage of qualified EFL teachers. In some places—for example, at Hunan University—the majority of those teaching English are individuals who have spent most of their careers (12-15 years) as teachers of Russian, with the obvious consequence that, in some institutions, there are many Chinese teachers of English who are unable to speak English but who do speak Russian! While this state of affairs might have its comic overtones, it is in reality a difficult situation for many Chinese who have unceremoniously been thrust into a teaching program for which they have virtually no preparation.

Another consequence of the present shortage of qualified EFL teachers is that the immediate need for teachers is forcing China to follow the undesirable practice of using proficiency in English as the overriding, even sole, criterion for appointment to teaching positions. The result is that there are now many Chinese teachers of English, perhaps most, who hold their positions primarily because they speak English and not because they have any real professional training to be teachers. Typically, young EFL teachers (lecturers) in the foreign language departments of the universities are recent graduates of the departments they now teach in, having been retained in such positions mainly because they achieved a reasonably good command of English as students. In virtually all instances, "teacher preparation" for these individuals is chiefly a process of learning from the example and advice of older colleagues. Formal teaching preparation of the kind generally familiar to the TESOL membership is rare, if it exists at all.

Given this situation, it should be no surprise to learn that foreigners who speak English natively but who have no professional preparation as EFL teachers are nevertheless welcomed as "experts" and placed easily in comparatively high salaried teaching positions.

Our delegation encountered this developing practice from the moment of our arrival when, quite by accident, we met several young Americans who were part of a group of twenty newly hired English teachers shortly to be assigned to various institutions and universities around the country. We learned that, of the twenty Americans just employed, only one had had any real professional experience as an EFL teacher and it soon became clear that that experience had no real bearing on her selection for the job.

At present the best EFL teaching in China appears to be going on in the Institutes for Foreign Languages (Peking and Shanghai) and in the Peking Language Institute. This is not surprising since it is the primary mission of these institutes to train fluent translators and interpreters, though many graduates of these institutes end up being assigned to schools in order to alleviate the teacher shortage. Language classes in the institutes seem to be uniformly manageable in size (15-20 students) and to concentrate heavily on the learning of spoken English. Typically, these institutes provide a four-year course of study in which an individual "majors" in a particular language. In addition to the language courses, which occupy from 8 to 14 class hours per week, students also take certain required courses distributed through the four-year curriculum. These include political indoctrination, history of the country of the language being studied, Chinese language and physical education. The first two years of the language program are known as the "ground-work" stage, 12-14 periods per week devoted to basic skills, additional listening/speaking activities, and "extensive reading" (i.e. classes for explanation and discussion of texts read outside of class). Invariably, the first two months of the "groundwork" stage seem to be concentrated on intensive pronunciation practice, with the pronunciation model being Standard British RP. The third and fourth years of the curriculum essentially involve enrichment activities in the language being studied, for example, attention to journalistic and literary writings, greater emphasis on translation projects, etc.

Students in the universities who are English majors follow a program of language study virtually identical to that described above, including the fact that their general curriculum requires less breadth of exposure to the main subject area divisions than undergraduates in American colleges and universities. (Correspondingly, however, the high school preparation of a Chinese university student is much more uniform and more intensive in certain areas—mathematics, chemistry, physics, language study—than that of American students.)

On the other hand, university students majoring in other subjects, but who are also required to study English for at least their first two years, do not fare so well. Typically, these students—usually known as the ESP students (English for special purposes)—are grouped into classes of 50-60 each, which meet twice weekly in double periods, totaling 4 hours of instruction per week. The objective of these classes is limited and practical: to help these students gain some ability in reading the English of texts in their general subject areas. Since the instructional program for ESP students, as well as for English majors, scarcely varies from one university to another, it appears that there is very little in the way of institutional autonomy with regard to curriculum planning and development.

One area, however, in which I did observe some limited variation from institution to institution is in textbook selection. The Institute for Foreign Languages in Peking has developed its own series of basic texts, of which Books I and II are now in print with Book III soon to be published. These are highly derivative in format and organization, clearly modeled on numerous British-produced ESL texts of, say, twenty years ago. Only the cultural content is different; it is clear that these texts serve the added purpose of seeking to reinforce the attitudes and views which the socialist state prefers its citizens to hold. Interestingly, a number of other institutions which had been using these texts are just now being allowed to replace them with other materials. The most common of the new text materials being tried out this year seems to be the *English For Today series.*

Other widely used texts include the *English 900* series, Eckersley's *Essential English*, *New Concept English*, and *New Certificate English Course for Foreign Students.* Of these, the most commonly used texts have been *English 900* and *Essential English.*

Since China does not participate in international copyright agreements, all of these British- and American-produced texts are copied in mimeographed form

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for classroom use, a problem that most certainly will have to be dealt with if educational assistance programs in China get launched in any serious way.

I found it instructive that, on more than one occasion, Chinese teachers of English or administrators of EFL programs remarked that they were eager to hear more about new pedagogical developments in second language teaching since, after all, the techniques of the audio-lingual approach were "a bit too mechanical." The fact that this response was repeated in several different institutions suggested that it had already taken on something of the character of a slogan to be parroted on cue (a nice irony in itself, I think). It also occurred to me that the uniformity of Chinese criticism of the audio-lingual approach was not much different from the uniformity of criticism of this approach that we have been hearing in this country for the past decade. In any case, terms like "communicative competence" and "cognitive code" were not unfamiliar to many of the Chinese EFL administrators. This, of course, surprised me at first, until I learned in Nanking that the chairman of the Department of Foreign Languages had been a member of a delegation of Chinese participants at the 1973 TESOL convention and thus was acquainted with the *TESOL Quarterly*, and then I learned in Shanghai that Geoffrey Leech had recently given a series of short courses in China under British Council auspices in which he discussed his new book *A Communicative Grammar of English*. In short, the Chinese have not been totally shut off from the West with regard to changing developments in the language teaching profession.

Nevertheless, actual classroom practice, at least in cases where the quality of teaching was rather good, was essentially standard-fare audio-lingual approach. At the Peking Language Institute, for example, I observed an almost classic demonstration of the mim-mem technique, including what I thought was an unusually impressive memory capacity on the part of most of the students in this class. Their ability to retain dialogues consisting of fairly long utterances was quite remarkable, especially considering the fact that they did so with books closed and after hearing the teacher present them orally no more than twice.

Simple repetition drills are also the most common technique used on radio broadcasts of English language lessons. We observed almost every day small groups of hotel employees huddled around the radio listening to the afternoon lesson and following the sample sentences in small, cheaply produced booklets ("It's a pig." "It's a chick." "It's a river"—to practice the high front lax vowel /ɪ/). On the other hand, televised English lessons, as in Japan, tend to be devoted to talky explanations of details of English grammar.

The fact remains, however, that the vast majority of Chinese students of English, principally those in the universities, in technical and vocational schools, and in the high schools, gain only a reading knowledge of English, and the degree of proficiency in this skill must surely vary widely. Especially in the ESP classes of 50-60 students in the universities, the traditional "grammar-translation" approach is very much alive (though not necessarily well). The task of dealing effectively with this kind of situation—great numbers of students enrolled in a required or highly desired language course, few qualified teachers to cope with this demand—is one that is familiar to many TESOL members, having confronted it in India, Pakistan, Japan and elsewhere, and is no easier to manage now than it has been since the acceleration of this problem in the post-WW II era.

That there is very little in the way of active research on English, or on the teaching of English as a foreign language, or on other related areas of applied linguistics is not surprising to any reasonably compassionate observer of the present academic scene in China. For the most part, the physical facilities in which teachers work are far from conducive for serious study, reflection, and writing. For one thing, there is simply no heat in any university buildings, so that when it is 25°F. or even 45°F. outside in February, it is no more than that inside, and I do not imagine that it is pleasant, even for the Chinese, to try to write up a report of ongoing research under those conditions. In addition to being cold, the libraries are also impoverished, especially with regard to the last 30 years of publication of books and monographs in the humanities and social science fields. While professional and scholarly journals in the physical sciences and in engineering seem to be available, comparable journals in linguistics and in EFL are virtually non-existent. Finally, over everything still lingers the pall of a demoralized system of higher education, the legacy of the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution. Everywhere, we were told that, after a decade of accomplishing practically nothing, universities and research institutes were just now being reorganized and rescuscitated. There are plans for expanding libraries and research facilities and classroom buildings, but, with the general critical shortage of housing, the building of dormitory facilities for students has higher priority. In short.

But the Chinese are a resilient and purposeful people, clearly intent on surmounting these inconveniences. Indeed, I believe that we could learn much from the uncomplaining manner in which so many of these people shoulder the rather drab and wearisome burdens of everyday life. At the Institute for Foreign Languages in Peking a new Chinese-to-English dictionary has recently been published. At Fudan University in Shanghai a new journal *Contemporary English Studies* is being produced by the Contemporary English Research Group. This journal is practically identical in size, format, and contents to the *ELEC Bulletin* published by the English Language Education Council in Tokyo.

There is some reason to hope for more sophisticated research developments in the near future, however. Just within the past year or two the Chinese Academy of Social Sciences has been reformed and rejuvenated and, although it clearly does not yet have the political clout of the Chinese Academy of Sciences, it is likely to be an important catalytic agent for a strong upgrading of research activities in many of its member institutes, including the Institute of Linguistics and Philosophy. My understanding is that contrastive studies of English and Chinese will be one of the principal areas of research focus to be carried out by this Institute.

At this writing (June 1979) there are already disturbing signs that the expansive mood that precipitated and accompanied the recent re-opening of China to the West has been somewhat curtailed and constrained. It is at least clear that we will not be immediately inundated with large numbers of Chinese students and visiting scholars at our universities. It would be both sad and unfortunate, I think, if the high hopes that have lent impetus to the process of normalization between the United States and the People's Republic of China were now to be sharply diminished. We may continue to hope, however, that the good will that has already been generated by the exchange of delegations will be strong enough to sustain the overtures that have so far been made, and, further, to accelerate the actual realization of various technical assistance programs. If this comes about—as I believe it will—it is likely to do so at a relatively slow but steadily building pace. This could be advantageous for all concerned since it would allow time for careful and intelligent program planning, both here and in China. The prospect invites comparison with the era of the 1950's and early 1960's when EFL programs proliferated in conjunction with rapid expansion of technical assistance programs in many areas of Asia and Latin America. Thus, the prospect also invites the thought of a vast new opportunity for the EFL teach-

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ing and research profession. In the present situation, time for careful and intelligent program planning should—we hope—allow us to remember what it was we did right in that earlier era, and, importantly, what it was we did wrong. China presents a new and fascinating opportunity for us, but it is an opportunity that must not be mishandled if we would hope to derive from it a truer understanding between peoples in addition to the technical contribution that our EFL programs would provide to China's material development.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE DEFINITE ARTICLE TO THE COHERENCE OF DISCOURSE

by Dr. Garry Molhot
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Though our teaching materials include necessary information about the function of the definite article, the difficulty we have in teaching its proper use provides extensive evidence that our materials are not sufficient. By increasing the number of relevant categories, it is possible to formulate a more generalized concept of the function of *the*. *The* contributes to the coherence of discourse by indicating the presence of a referential relation.

Referential relation is used here to mean the type of semantic intersection obtaining between any two nouns in a discourse. Any N1 may have the same, different, or partial reference to any N2. For a discourse to be coherent, we must know these referential relations, as explained below.

I. Introduction, Subsequent Mention, and Reintroduction.

There is a problem with analysing the use of the articles in the following sequence as examples of *introduction* and *subsequent mention*.

1. Joy threw *a ball*.
2. *The ball* went into *a window*.

Subsequent mention implies that *the* will be used for all further instances of the lexical item *ball* in this discourse. There are, however, two important cases when this is not true. First, it is possible that there will be reference to *a different ball*, which would require *ball* to be introduced again, along with an appropriate adjective indicating the difference. The second case is more complex. If the perspective of the discourse is shifted from that of the speaker/writer to a participant, *ball* could be reintroduced, as in (3) in sequence with (1) and (2):

3. When George saw that Joy threw *a ball* through *a window*, he laughed.

Here, *a ball* follows *the ball*, and a *window* (in (2) above.) According to the general concept of subsequent mention, we would expect *ball* and *window* in (3) to be preceded by *the*. Thus, the concept of subsequent mention, though useful, should be altered to include the notion of continued perspective. With a shift of perspective, subsequent mention does not necessarily imply that *the* is appropriate.

When different lexical items are used with the same reference, as in the following sequence:

4. *A woman* in a red dress came into church.

the lady
5. Mr. Jones greeted with a
smile. *the trollop*

the situation becomes more complex. We do not always agree on which lexical items are suitable for renaming. One man's *saint* might be another man's *sinner*, etc., etc. For this reason, within the framework of traditional transformational generative grammar, as explained by Thomas Bever and John Ross in their unpublished paper *Meaning Postulates* (1967 MIT Department of Linguistics), this type of perceptual problem has been shifted from the discipline of linguistics to psychology even though there is an overt linguistic marker, *the*, manifesting the presence of a referential relation. Rather than shift this to psychology, however, we should be able to discuss it in terms of intended relations. That is, if someone wants to imply a relation between N1 and N2 in a discourse, we should know what structures are available to facilitate that intention. This allows us to include a valid concept in linguistics without the necessity of writing an encyclopedic component in the grammar, as Bever and Ross insist we would have to if we did not "sweep this under the rug" of psychology. Of course we cannot write a grammar which includes all possible relations, especially since we maintain that language is creative, reflecting an ever changing world.

II. Enumeration

Consider the sequence:

6. I went to a *baseball game* in St. Louis.
The teams played well.
The hot dogs tasted great.
The fans were a lot of fun.
Also, they have *a new score board* there which shoots fireworks.

Teams, hot dogs, and *fans* are preceded by *the*, meaning that there is an intended relation between them, and in this case, *a baseball game*. These are well understood components of a baseball game. However, in this sequence, the type of scoreboard is perceived as special, not an ordinary part of most games, so it is preceded by *a* to emphasize this.

Again, this involves perception. If someone intends to portray a relationship as ordinary or as special, there are overt linguistic markers to facilitate this, even if the relationship seems improbable, as in:

7. I bought *a new house*, but *the launching pad* is broken.

Here we understand that the speaker/writer intends for us to accept the idea that a *launching* pad is a normal part of a *house*, but, for most of us, this would result in a polite question regarding the sense of the statement.

Consider the enumeration of abstract concepts such as *love* in:

8. *The love* corporal ____ showed for his country is exemplified by his actions. He did *X*, *Y*, and *Z*.

in which *X*, *Y*, and *Z* are intended to enumerate the concept of *love*, involves actions as well as nouns, and is also subject to perceptual differences. Since this construction is a special (cataphoric) construction (the "subsequently mentioned" item occurs first and is followed by an explanation) it really belongs in the next section, Combination.

III. Combination

Combination also occurs with abstract and concrete concepts. After enumerating several nouns, their combined total may be subsequently mentioned with one cover term, as in:

9. On the stage we saw *a chair*, *a couch*, *a lamp*, and *an old trunk*. *The furniture* was arranged neatly.

where *furniture* stands for the total. Of course, any of the items could be reintroduced from a different perspective. Perception plays a part, especially with abstract concepts, as in:

10. Tim was shouting at Grace, and Grace was shouting at Tim. *The argument* lasted for ten minutes.

or

11. Ralph, the banker, took all the bank's money and bet it on the winning horse. *The stroke of genius* saved the town.

In (10) *argument* is an acceptable cover term, but in (11), *stroke of genius* might raise objections in favor of *folly*, *risk*, *crime* or some similar term. Whichever term is perceived as appropriate, the definite article *the* is used to show that there is an intended relation.

IV. Conclusion

The is one of the most frequently occurring words in English. From the examples given above, it is clear that we need a better definition of its function than to say it is used for subsequent mention, unique entities, or nouns which have "undergone" definitization. The definition should neither be misleading, incomplete, nor vacuous.

The common characteristic of the function of *the* in the above examples is that it indicates the presence of an intended referential relation, whether or not that relation is between the same or different lexical items, and whether or not it is within one sentence or between different sentences. Without the relation, coherence is severely damaged. We would not know what is being referred

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THE DEFINITE ARTICLE

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to. Yet, with several of these occurring in the same discourse, sometimes overlapping each other, we have no way of determining whether the concepts refer to each other or not unless we have already processed the semantic information. In the sequence:

12. A noun. . . . a noun. . . . the noun. . . . a noun. . . . the noun. . . . the noun. . . . a noun. . . . a noun. . . . the noun. . . .

we are lost if we want to decide which nouns are related, until we semantically decode the nouns. Then we are able to process the information provided by the *a*'s and *the*'s.

Thus, this feature of the language suggests that a semantic based discourse grammar is needed to account for the coherence of texts.

As for *the* itself, it is one of the cues used to inform the *reader/listener* that the following information should be familiar, either through the linguistic or cultural context of the discourse. It is also an invitation to the *reader/listener* to question the reference intended.

IT WORKS

Edited by **Darlene Larson**
New York University

OVERCOMING THE FEAR OF A FOREIGN LANGUAGE PHONE CONVERSATION

by **Donald Montalto**
International Institute of Boston

One of the most difficult situations to master in a foreign language is a telephone conversation. There are no hand signals or gestures to help in understanding a strange word or phrase. The person at the other end of the line can't see the blank expression on the student's face and doesn't always realize that not much is being understood. The quality of the sound is often such that the student only hears the accented syllables and the general intonation, leaving even an advanced learner of the language hopelessly lost. Most students will admit that they have been afraid to answer their own phones because they didn't think they would be able to understand anything. Such fears are even expressed by fairly fluent students.

A common technique used in foreign language teaching to help students overcome their fear of phone conversations is to have them work in pairs, each student with his back to his partner. Since the students are sitting back-to-back, they cannot pick up any hand signals or facial gestures. Back-to-back pairing is a good step towards helping students function well in a foreign language phone conversation. But like many teaching techniques, it lacks reality.

One excellent method for practicing real phone calls in the classroom is to attach a speaker to a phone so that everyone in the room can hear both sides of the conversation. Such speakers are readily available at low cost (Radio Shack #43-231, $9.95) and can be easily attached and detached to a phone receiver by means of a suction-cup microphone. The phone conversation should also be recorded for follow-up exercises. The important advantage of such a set-up is that there is a real live native speaker at the other end of the line and not another student. This advantage is well worth the trouble of arranging to have the class meet in a room with a phone.

A good way to make both the teacher and the students familiar with the set-up is first to call recorded announcements such as time/temperature, weather reports, movie theaters, and road reports. Large cities often have hundreds of listed phone recordings ranging from "Dial-a-Joke" (New York 976-3838) to "The Why and How of Flossing Your Teeth" (Bufflao 855-3555, tape 301). As a follow-up exercise, the teacher might then ask straight-forward listening comprehension questions. For example, after calling a movie theater recording, the teacher might ask, "What is the name of the movie playing next week? . . . What's playing at the _____ Theater today? What time does the movie begin?"

Additional follow-up exercises can be done using the tape made in class of the phone recording. For example, dialing the weather forecast might yield something like the following in rapid blurred speech: "The Boston area forecast calls for sunny skies today and tomorrow with a 10% chance of rain through Tuesday night." Having recorded the forecast in class, the teacher can then replay the first phrase and ask the students to repeat what they have just heard. It will be difficult to do, but as each student contributes his or her knowledge, the group will eventually be able to recreate most of the recorded weather report. Even in advanced classes, there will usually be a word or phrase which no one in the class can decipher despite several repetitions of the tape. The teacher can then explain the word or phrase. Once everyone in the class understands the sentence, the teacher can have the students write it in the form of a dictation exercise. Such follow-up exercises help the students develop their ability to guess the meaning of distorted and difficult sentences. Students can be trained to understand most of a phone conversation even if only half of the individual words and phrases are decipherable, the rest being sheer guesswork.

After the students feel comfortable with the amplification and recording devices, they can try a real conversation. A safe phone call for a beginner might be to ask how late a store stays open. (Cultural note: Many foreign students come from countries where business hours are strictly regulated by law. If these students are recent arrivals, they may not be aware of the fact that not all American businesses open and close simultaneously and they may think such a phone inquiry is ridiculous.) Another non-anxiety-producing call is to the post office to find out about the postage on a letter to a foreign country. Students will be very reluctant at first to come forward and carry on a phone conversation for fear they will make fools of themselves in front of their classmates. It is therefore a good idea to begin with the most aggressive member of the class.

Intermediate and advanced students can practice more involved types of phone calls where the conversation might take on any imaginable direction, such as calling an airline, bus terminal, or AMTRAK for fares and scheduling information. Calls about jobs, apartments, or used cars advertised in the paper can be made, as well as calls to banks to inquire about a loan or checking account. If one of the students in the class needs to make an appointment, he or she might be invited to do so by phone in front of his classmates. In short, any kind of call which has to be made as a part of everyday life can be practiced in an ESL class.

With many types of calls, it is impossible to prepare students for all of the unfamiliar words and phrases which they might encounter. They should be ready with a phrase like, "I'm sorry. I don't understand you. Can you speak more slowly?" Upon hearing this phrase, most people at the other end of the line will begin to speak even more slowly than most ESL teachers do. The vocabulary and syntax often remain, however, just as baffling to the student, so that it may become necessary for the teacher to intervene. For example, a student calling about an ad for an apartment heard the following at lightning speed: "The brokers are all tied up at the moment. Can I put you on hold?" She asked to have the mumbled blur repeated, but she still couldn't understand "broken", "tied up", and "put on hold", all new vocabulary to her. At this point it became necessary for the teacher to bail her out and write on the board, "Can you wait?" Her face lit up and she replied, "No, that's O.K. I'll call later." After she hung up, her classmates applauded and cheered, as often happens after the tension of a foreign language phone call. The aforementioned follow-up exercises were then done, based on the tape recording of the conversation.

Live phone conversations practiced in class are a useful way to break up the potential monotony of a language class. Such conversations help the students learn the vocabulary necessary for survival in the new country by bringing the real world into the classroom.

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HAVE YOU EVER STOPPED TO THINK ABOUT THIS?

(Occasionally the TESOL NEWSLETTER and IT WORKS receive manuscripts which analyze language or express observations about the task of learning English. These observations seem to focus on vocabulary, grammar, and usage, but contributions need not be limited to these areas. Below is a sample of what we mean.

ROOMS

from Raymond Griffith
Whitewater, Wisconsin

There are:
Rooms to start up in
Rooms to start out in
Rooms to start over in

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ROOMS

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Rooms to lie in
Rooms to lie about in
Rooms to be lied to about being lied about in
Rooms to lay away in
Rooms to lay up in
Rooms to lay over in
Rooms to lie low in
Rooms to lie about being laid up in
Rooms to be put in
Rooms to be put up in
Rooms to be put up to in
Rooms to be put up with in
Rooms to be put up with for putting on in
Rooms to be put down in for putting up with being put off in putting forth in
Rooms to turn in in
Rooms to be turned in in
Rooms to be turned on in
Rooms to be turned around in
Rooms to be turned down in
Rooms to be turned over to in
Rooms to be overturned in
Rooms to turn away in when being turned off in
Rooms to be turned upon in for turning up turned out in
Rooms to hold back in
Rooms to hold in in
Rooms to hold out in
Rooms to hold on in
Rooms to hold forth on in about being held off in
Rooms to be held down in
Rooms to be upheld in
Rooms to withhold in when being held up in
Rooms to sit up in
Rooms to sit down in
Rooms to be set down in
Rooms to sit about in
Rooms to set about in
Rooms to set out in
Rooms to sit in on in
Rooms to be set aside in
Rooms to be set upon in
Rooms to sit up in to be set off in
Rooms to be set back in for sitting out in
Rooms to be set up in for being sat on in for sitting back in
Rooms to be upset in
Rooms to give in
Rooms to give in in
Rooms to take in in
Rooms to be taken in in
Rooms to be mistaken in
Rooms to be mistaken about in
Rooms to take over in
Rooms to be overtaken in
Rooms to take up with in
Rooms to be taken up on in
Rooms to give in in about being taken up in
Rooms to give over to being taken on in
Rooms to be taken off on in for being given away in
Rooms to give up in.

THE MEANING OF "BLURP": TEACHING DICTIONARY USE

by Inez Marquez
University of Florida

A "hand" is that part of the human anatomy attached at the wrist to the lower arm and having four fingers and a thumb. Right? Well, think again as you read these sentences:

1. *Hand* me the salt, please.
2. I finally have a winning *hand*!
3. The audience gave her a big *hand*.
4. Joe needs a new hired *hand*.
5. The children are in good *hands*.
6. Can I lend you a *hand*?
7. Mom keeps some extra money on *hand*.

Obviously the above definition is inappropriate for these sentences. A look at the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* reveals fifty-four definitions under the entry "hand." It is not surprising, therefore, that the learner of English as a foreign language finds dictionary definitions confusing and the English language capricious.

Rather than banning the dictionary from the classroom, the teacher of English as a foreign language should guide students in its proper use. The dictionary can become a valuable aid for self-instruction. The following steps have proven successful with my students and may be useful in your own classroom.

First, don't assume your students know the alphabet. It must be taught. Even when the students' native writing system is similar to that of English. Moreover, students should distinguish between the "name" of a letter and its "sound." Before introducing the alphabet the teacher should be sure the students understand its usefulness. This awareness can be fostered by having students name instances in which knowledge of the alphabet is useful, such as spelling your name over the telephone or finding a name in the telephone directory.

Second, give students practice in alphabetizing words by their first letter, as in "busy, clean, delicate, elegant," to alphabetizing by the fourth or fifth letter, as in "immature, immediate, immigrant, immoral."

Third, create awareness of the multiple meanings of words. Have students go through the dictionary to find the number of definitions entered under such words as "hand," "head," and "light." Students may also look at a dictionary of their native language to note how words in their own language also have multiple meanings.

Fourth, create awareness of the multiple grammatical functions a word can play. The use of a nonsense word in sentences such as the following will help students understand these differences:

1. Mrs. Elbers is a famous *blurp*.
2. Mrs. Elbers will *blurp* in the opera.
3. Mrs. Elbers has a *blurp* in her apartment window.
4. The *blurp* drink helped me go to sleep.
5. The mother *blurped* the baby to sleep by telling him a story.
6. The *unblurply* sound of the train is heard in the distance.

The teacher should help students note the context clues and affix clues which indicate the grammatical function of the nonsense word.

Fifth, once students are conscious of the multiple grammatical functions of a word, direct students to find the appropriate meaning of words. To do this they must first identify the word's grammatical function in a sentence and then find the most appropriate meaning in the given context. Thus for the nonsense word "blurp" the teacher may provide the following definitions:

blurp n. 1. a tropical song bird of the South Pacific
2. the song of this bird
3. a person who sings with great ability
v. 4. to sing beautifully
5. to calm a person with one's voice
adj. 6. musical
7. having a calming effect

In the first sentence, "Mrs. Elbers is a famous *blurp*," since "blurp" is a noun, definitions four through seven can be disregarded. Of the first three definitions, number three is the most appropriate for this context. The teacher continues with this procedure with each of the remaining examples. Additional practice should be given with other nonsense words before students use the dictionary to find the meaning of English words. Students may then proceed to find the meaning of words in sentences such as those presented for the word "hand."

(from *Gulf Area TESOL Newsletter*, Summer 1980)

LEARNING JSL FROM *SHOGUN*

by Andreas J. Martin
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NBC-TV recently provided the television viewing audience with an intensive bi-lingual/bi-cultural experience. For twelve hours, stretching over five evenings, the mini-series *Shogun* was aired. Watching the program gave me several insights into language teaching/learning.

Blackthorne, a 17th century Englishman, gets marooned in medieval Japan, and quickly discovers that the language and culture are totally alien to his own. His new circumstances force him to adjust and adapt or die, a feeling not unknown to immigrants and refugees coming to the United States.

At least half the dialogue of *Shogun* is in Japanese, with almost no sub-titles. Viewers share Blackthorne's bewilderment when he hears Japanese all around him. It is refreshing to hear Japanese people speaking their own language in an American movie. I am reminded of all those war movies where the bad guys speak English, regardless of their nationality, or "spaghetti" westerns where the Indians speak Italian.

In the story, Yabu, a Japanese warlord, recognizes the importance of learning JSL (Japanese as a Second Language). He gives Blackthorne, renamed Anjin-san, six months to learn the language. Yabu leaves Anjin-san in a village and tells him that the villagers are responsible for helping and teaching him to learn Japanese. Anjin-san discovers that if he fails to learn Japanese, the village will be burned, but first Yabu will crucify every man, woman and child in the village. Yabu reminds me of some program directors and school principles I have known. He seems to know a lot about motivation.

As a language teacher, I immediately wanted to know what level of competency Yabu would accept at the end of the allotted time. Alas, we never find out, because Anjin-san goes to Lord Yabu and tells him that he cannot bear the responsibility of having the lives of the villagers on his head. If Yabu will not rescind his decree, he, Anjin-san, will be forced to kill himself. Yabu, in true bureaucratic form, tells him that the order cannot be taken back. Just as Anjin-san is about to plunge the dagger into his own guts, Yabu's samurai leaps to pull it away. Yabu relents and tells Anjin-san that however much JSL he learns will be all right, and that the village will be spared. I wonder how many JSL and ESL students come to learn language feeling responsible for their "village"?

Anjin-san finally does learn Japanese by one of the oldest, tried and true methodologies, from his lover. She reminds him, "To speak Japanese, you have to think Japanese." Wise words.

Shogun also verified, in my mind, the notion of language learning through listening comprehension as espoused by Palmer, Asher, Winitz, *et al.* Watching *Shogun* two to three hours a night for five nights provided a heavy dose of the Japanese language. Viewers were able to identify with Anjin-san's progress in learning JSL. I found myself learning along with him.

In *The Learnables*, a set of materials designed to teach English through listening comprehension, the learner sees and hears language spoken systematically and recycled in a range of contexts. In *Shogun*, viewers underwent the same process. By the second night I was consciously trying to figure out the Japanese words and expressions Anjin-san had learned to use. If I missed some, it did not bother me because I knew he would be using them again.

To NBC for giving us a most interesting crosscultural experience, I say, "Domo, NBC-san."